INSTRUCTIONAL PRACTICES OF CANADIAN POLICE OFFICER TRAINING PROGRAMS

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INSTRUCTIONAL PRACTICES OF CANADIAN POLICE OFFICER TRAINING PROGRAMS

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Abstract

Canadian communities are asking their police officers to perform duties that are becoming broader in scope and this has placed increased demands on those officers. These changes also bring about questions about the methods used to train tomorrow's police officer and how this training aligns itself with how adults learn.

The purpose of the research was to examine the instructional practices of contemporary police officer training programs with respect to Malcom Knowles' six major principles of adult learning. The study used a mixed method design comprised of an instructor survey, and interviews with key informants from police training academies. Forty-eight instructors completed the survey and nine administrators participated in individual interviews.

The analysis of the survey data revealed that although respondents utilized activities that aligned with some of Knowles' six principles, there were other activities that did not align. The analysis of the interview data revealed that participants understood and supported the utilization of most of Knowles' six principles with their training programs. Further analysis of the interview data identified four emerging themes as having a significant impact on the delivery of police officer training: social context, model of training delivery; contributing institutional factors; and, instructor qualifications.

Based on the findings from this research police officer training academies should:

1. Promote a new model of training delivery that focuses on the learner and their ability to problem solve, think critically, and effectively work with others.
2. Adopt a pre-employment model of training.

3. Establish stronger partnerships with post-secondary institutions.
4. Work with all levels of government in order to facilitate change.

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FACULTY OF EDUCATION

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommended to the Senate for acceptance, a **MASTER'S THESIS** entitled:

INSTRUCTIONAL PRACTICES OF CANADIAN POLICE OFFICER TRAINING PROGRAMS

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In partial fulfillment for the requirements for the degree of

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Chapter One Introduction

In many aspects, police services within Canada are facing challenges like they have never faced before. For example, media reports from across Canada are detailing the pressure that federal, provincial, and municipal governments are placing upon their police services to reduce operating budgets. On another front, high profile judicial inquiries are questioning police accountability and more specifically, individual officer conduct. This has resulted in several judicial inquiries such as the Aboriginal Justice Inquiry-Manitoba (1991), the Taman Inquiry-Manitoba (2008), and the Braidwood Inquiry-British Columbia (2009), and perhaps the most critical being the Oppal Inquiry (2010). At the operational level, the daily duties of an officer may range from a call for assistance from a social services agency to an investigation into a complex cybercrime involving child pornography.

According to Mason (2008), community constables are enforcers of the law but they also may need to act as a counselor, mediator, or problem-solver. He or she is also quite likely required to multi-task a number of these functions at the same time.

Society is engaged in non-linear and dynamic interactions between multiple variables, creating changes not anticipated nor clearly traced (Mason, 2008, p. 17). It is evident that the duties conducted by police officers are significantly more complicated and broader in scope than ever before. With such monumental changes to the policing profession, an obvious question is, "have the training and education of police officers kept pace?"

Police services have years of experience identifying state of the art equipment that will enhance the quality of operations and then training their officers in the use of that equipment. Computer software programs, in-car reporting systems, major case management processes, and crime statistical reporting programs are common place in police services.

Based on the findings of judicial inquiries such as those cited above, it is not the lack of state of the art equipment or technology that is causing the greatest difficulties for the police and the service they provide. Each of these inquiries has, in one form or another, commented critically on the abilities of police officers with respect to decision making, critical thinking and communication skills. In turn, these criticisms bring about questions on police officer training methods.

Police Training Curricula

In 2012, the Police Sector Council, a not-for-profit organization funded by the Government of Canada's Sector Council program, worked with police services from across Canada to identify the core competencies that a constable within Canada should possess (http://www.policecouncil.ca/pages/hr2Framework). From this process the Council created a competency framework which consists of a list of competencies and detailed description of what a police officer should be able to do in order to fulfill their duties. At police training academies, curriculum developers use these competencies to develop programs and assess the knowledge and abilities of recruits. The curriculum developed for training must ensure that the learner has not only acquired the knowledge; but in order for a police officer to be competent, he or she must also be able to apply that knowledge in real life situations.

While the Police Sector Council developed the competency framework, it did not examine the instructional practices utilized by police services to train their officers. Birzer (2003) stated that contemporary police officer training evolved from militaristic origins, where training took place in a behaviorist command-and-control environment. Cleveland and Saville (2007) stated that:

> although the basic values like honesty, fairness and service to others remains foundations to policing, the command and control teaching and mimetic learning of days gone by will not provide today's police officer with the critical thinking and problem solving skills needed to solve tomorrow's problems (p.3).

The curriculum created for a program includes instructional strategies. In order to evaluate the effectiveness of these strategies it is important to understand the components of a curriculum and the impact that each has with respect to the attainment of the desired learning. Henson (2010) described the components of curriculum as being a program of studies delivered in a series of courses, a defining document, a definition of the desired learning outcomes, and a well thought-out series of planned learning experiences. He went on to add that the quality of the instruction, the learning activities, and the methods of assessment all affect a student's learning experience. In short, curriculum is much more than content. In order for learners to become competent, a training program must take into consideration each of these components.

Within this expanded description of curriculum, the goal of this study is to explore the extent to which instructors and administrators of police training programs use and understand the principles of adult learning in their instructional practices.

Historically, the training of police officers followed a behaviorist methodology (Birzer, 2003, p. 30). In many ways, this model of delivery has served police services well. For example, when required to provide evidence of training at judicial inquiries, police services are able to produce well documented lesson plans detailing the learning activities. The true value of training and education is not the lecture or power point presentation, but rather the degree of learning that took place within the learners and their ability to implement that knowledge in the execution of their duties.

Purpose and Significance of the Study

The purpose of this study is to examine the instructional practices of contemporary police officer training programs with respect to Knowles' six principles of adult learning. The significance of this study is to help inform instructional practices of police training programs in Canada.

Research Questions

Based on the literature, the inclusion of Knowles' six principles of adult learning can enhance police officer training programs. Using the six principles of adult education, the two central research questions are:

1. To what extent do police service instructors currently understand and use instructional approaches that align with these principles?
2. To what extent do academy policies and procedures align themselves with these principles?

Participants in the study are instructors and administrators from police officer training academies in Canada.

Research Design

This study used a mixed method design comprised of the following research activities:

1. An electronic survey distributed to participating police academy instructors to complete via Survey Monkey ™. The survey determined the extent to which instructors within police training academies are aware of and utilizing learning activities based on the principles of adult learning.

2. Personal interviews with key informants within the training academies. These individuals who, by means of their positions within the administration of the academies, are

knowledgeable about the philosophical and instructional orientation of the curricula used in their police officer training programs.

Summary

The scope of duties that police officers throughout Canada perform are ever evolving, which in turn, impacts that skills and abilities these officers must possess. Evidence provided by Birzer (2003), and Cleveland and Saville (2007), suggested that the traditional training methods of police services may not be providing the type of training that will give new police officers those skills and abilities. Using a mixed method of inquiry, this study seeks evidence as to the degree which current police officer training follows the principles of adult learning in the training of new officers. The next chapter reviews the current body of literature of relevance to this research.

Chapter Two Literature Review

Introduction

A review of current literature regarding police officer training supports a position that with a greater understanding and application of adult learning principles, the training and education of new officers could be improved (Birzer, 2003; Cleveland & Saville, 2007). Furthermore, much of the literature supports the position that a constructivist learning methodology based on Knowles' six principles of adult learning could provide more effective police officer training.

The Application of Andragogy - Constructivist Learning Theory

Constructivist learning theory is a major theoretical framework of adult learning (Merriam et al., 2007; Mayen, 2011; Hodge, 2011; Rutherford-Hemming, 2012; Bass, 2012). As described by Rutherford-Hemming (2012), constructivist learning theory may provide the greatest insight into adult learning with its emphasis on transformative learning, experiential learning, reflection, and situated learning. "Personal transformation and social transformation involve a cognitive change in the way meaning is constructed; therefore, it is easy to connect transformational learning theory to the constructivist paradigm. Experiential learning, including the methods associated with the reflective and situative paradigms (reflective practice and situated cognition), is also connected to constructivist learning theory" (p. 5).

Leonard (2002) provided further support by explaining that constructivist theories such as Carroll's *experience-based learning*, and Bandura's *observational learning*, focus upon the learner's previous experience and its' impact to new knowledge and concepts to be learned. (pp. 67-68). One of the primary assumptions underlying Knowles (1973) work on andragogy is the position that adults come into an educational activity with both a greater volume and a different

quality of experience from youths (p. 58). The conclusion drawn from the work of these theorists are that training programs involving adults, should (a) recognize and begin with the experience that each learner brings into the room; and (b), allow the learner to experience, reflect upon, and construct new meanings.

Principles of Adult Learning

Malcolm Knowles (1913 – 1997) was a renowned adult educator from the United States and from 1951-1959 he was the executive director of the Adult Education Association of the United States. Knowles supported the belief that adults learn differently than children do and through his research and publications he popularized the term andragogy. In 1968 Knowles published a list of principles that has become fundamental to the study of andragogy.

Leonard (2002) detailed Knowles concept of andragogy as a *learner-centric* approach to learning, based on the following six principles:

1. *Need to know*. Adults require that the instructor provide a rationale for why they need to learn the new information prior to learning it. Otherwise, they lack a motivation for learning, which is a key to the adult learning experience.
2. *Self-concept*. Adults have a defined identity that involves being responsible for their own lives, decisions, and actions. They dislike not having control over the activities they will engage in, as is often the case in a pedagogic learning environment.
3. *Life-experience*. Adults have gained life experiences not yet taken on by children, such as being a spouse, a parent, a worker, or a manager. They bring these experiences to the learning situation.
4. *Readiness to learn*. Adults are ready to learn when they make a decision that the content provided in the learning experience will be helpful for their real-life activities.

5. *Orientation to learning*. Adults approach learning from a very practical perspective. They seek it to improve their lives and to be more productive. Adults expect learning to be task-oriented and related to their jobs versus passively obtaining subject-oriented information unrelated to their work. Thus, they will learn the content only as it applies to activities that they need to learn about to perform useful tasks. For adults, providing contextual information is key to the effectiveness of the learning experience.
6. *Motivation to learn*. Adults are, for the most part, self-motivated to learn. Internal forces are at work that make them self-motivated, such as better lifestyle, better work environment, better job, and increased self-esteem. Adults are highly motivated to learn in a positive adult learning environment. They become fearful when placed in a pedagogic learning environment where the teacher seeks to be an authority figure, rather than a facilitator of knowledge.

Knowles presented his six principles of adult education in 1968 and since that time they have been the subject of considerable discussion. Although not considered a learning theory, there is strong support that his six principles inform effective adult learning (Merriam et al., 2007). A more detailed description of each of the principles follows.

Need to know. Across the literature on adult learning theory, there is significant reference to Knowles' first principle, the need to know. In describing the work of Jean Piaget, primarily considered a pioneer of constructivists learning theory, Leonard (2002) wrote:

> In Piaget's *developmental learning* theory, the key to the growth and maturation of the person is through a twofold learning process. Through the process of *accommodation*, existing *cognitive structures* change to make sense of the new events occurring in the environment. Through *assimilation,* the individual interprets environmental events based

upon existing cognitive structures. Both are integral to the success of the individual's development (p. 7).

Piaget (2005) himself gave further explanation by stating that a person only engages in an activity if he or she feels a need to. He went on to add that:

> According to Claparede, feelings appoint a goal for behavior, while intelligence merely provides the means (the "technique"). But there exists an awareness of ends as well as of means, and this continually modifies the goals of action. In so far as feelings direct behavior by attributing a value to its ends, we must confine ourselves to saying that it supplies the energy necessary for action, while knowledge impresses a structure on it (p. 5).

Brooks and Brooks (1993) supported this position and highlighted the belief that prior to taking action students had to be affectively driven. They believed that a teacher's main task is to help learners clarify issues for themselves by posing questions and helping to clarify results.

This principle supports the concept of "need to know" and highlights the importance of the affective learning environment. It does not suffice to have the adult learner in the classroom; they must also see the relevance of the learning experience to their lives.

Self-concept. The literature on adult learning also supports the self-concept principle (Bass, 2012; Merriam et al., 2007; Brooks & Brooks, 1993). Each of these researchers have studied and written about the positive effects upon learning when the learners are in control of their learning. By shifting control of the learning activities over to the learner, there is a greater opportunity for self-reflection, action, feeling, and thinking. Sousa (2011) supported this position when he stated that "the new research is revealing that students are more likely to gain

greater understanding of and derive greater pleasure from learning when allowed to *transform* the learning into creative thoughts and products" (p. 44).

Life experience. With reference to Knowles' third principle, life experience, there is an extensive body of literature. For example, Mayen (2011), concluded "andragogy has particular resonance: it supposes that adults cannot be educated like children – not because children learn differently than adults, but because the way children are taught is hardly considered acceptable for adults, or even very effective in general" (p. 159). He added that teaching practices must take into account and acknowledge the experiences which the adult learner already possesses. These experiences may prove to be rich resource as well as a possible obstacle to further learning.

Readiness to learn. Leonard (2002) explained this principle as being the point at which a learner makes a conscientious decision that the content in the learning experience will be helpful for their real-life activities (pp. 7-8).

Thorndike's *Law of* Readiness and Mezirow's *Transformative* Learning theory are evidence that an adult's readiness to learn is a crucial element of learning. Adults must not only be provided with learning situations, they must be given the time to reflect, identify the assumptions governing their actions, question those assumptions, and consider the alternate courses of action (Bass, 2012; Mayen, 2011; Leonard, 2002). Intrinsic to these positions is the fact that the control over learning, that is, the readiness to learn, must be possesses by the adult learner, not the teacher.

The principle of readiness to learn is somewhat contradictory to Behaviorist Learning Theory which is content-laden and involves a didactic approach to the transmission of

knowledge (Merriam et al., p. 278). Rogers (1980) described the dynamics of Behaviorist Learning Theory in this way:

> The teachers are the possessors of knowledge, the students the expected recipients. The lecture, or some means of verbal transmission, is the major means of getting knowledge into the recipients. The examination measures the extent to which the students have received it. The teachers are the possessors of power, the students the ones who obey. Rule by authority is the accepted policy in the classroom. Trust is at a minimum (pp. 295-296).

Orientation to learning. Orientation to learning once again places the lens of adult learning on the learner and the learner's expectations. Mayen (2011) referred to vocational training to describe orientation to learning. He claimed that "Practical intelligence and occupational skills and know-how are recognized as forms of knowledge just as noble as academic forms.....A good professional is not primarily one who knows, but who knows how to do something" (p. 163). The inference to be drawn is that the learner must have a sense of how they will apply the knowledge and skills in their real-life activities.

Taken one step further, learners who cannot appreciate how the knowledge or skill will apply, become performers instead of learners. Brooks and Brooks (1993) turned to the work of Katz (1995) and Gardner (1991b) in their explanation of the effect:

> Katz (1985) and Gardner (1991b) describe the discrepancy between perceived and actual success as the difference between learning and performance. In discussing this difference, Katz (1985) stresses that emphasis on performance usually results in little recall over time, while emphasis on learning generates long-term understanding. Students educated in a setting that stresses performance learn that technique, rules, and

> memory matter more than context, authenticity, and wholeness. Therefore, rather than seeking deep understanding, these students seek short-term strategies for accomplishing tasks or passing tests. When asked, several weeks or months later, to apply what they supposedly had learned, most students can't (pp. 8-9).

Again, the inference is that the learning environment must facilitate an understanding within the learner of how they will apply the knowledge and skills at a later time. This is an internalizing-constructivist understanding of how and why the knowledge is important.

As Brooks and Brooks (1993) pointed out, the constructivist framework has been somewhat criticized for subordinating curriculum in lieu of individual interests. They concluded that not all students begin the learning process with a clear understanding of how the learning applies to "real-life", however, they also identify that "posing problems of emerging relevance is a guiding principle of constructivist pedagogy.....relevance can emerge through teacher mediation" (p. 35).

Motivation to learn. In his final principle, Knowles asserted that the adult learner must be motivated to learn. This principle is closely related to *humanist* learning theory. As Leonard (2002) explained "Adults are highly motivated to learn in a positive adult learning environment. They become fearful when placed in a pedagogic learning environment where the teacher seeks to be an authority figure, rather than a facilitator of knowledge" (p. 7).

One of the more influential theorists to speak about the adult learning environment has been Carl Rogers (1980) and his focus on the affective environment. He wrote " I deplore the manner in which, from early years, the child's education splits him or her: the *mind* can come to school, and the body is permitted, peripherally, to tag along, but the feelings and emotions can live freely and expressively only outside of school" (p. 263). Although in this case Rogers was

specifically speaking about children, he makes an important point. Regardless of a learner's age, a person's emotions and how they feel about any given situation has enormous impact on engagement and the degree of learning.

The teacher who passes judgement, controls what takes place within the classroom, and provides all feedback on student performance, has enormous influence on a student's motivation to learn (Brooks &Brooks, 1993). In describing Illeris's Three Dimensions of Learning Model, Merriam et al. (2007) expounded upon the importance of feelings and emotion:

> In his model there are three dimensions involved in learning - cognition, emotion, and society… all three aspects of learning occur within society.... Although one dimension might be emphasized over the other two all three are always present in a learning activity. The cognitive dimension involves knowledge and skills while the emotional dimension consists of feelings and motivation. Cognition and emotion are internal processes that interact simultaneously in the acquisition of knowledge or skills (p. 97).

In his model of learning Kolb believed that learning involves concrete experience with reflective observation, cognition and behavior, but it was Boud and Walker (1991) who augmented Kolb's theory by including context as an additional aspect that shapes an individual's learning in experience, along with emotion and the influence that it exerts on reflection (Rutherford-Hemming, 2012, p. 5). The literature is clearly saying two things: emotions have an enormous influence on learning, and; the emotions of the adult learner significantly impact the motivation to learn.

As stated previously, the goal of this research is to examine the instructional practices of police officer training instructors based on the principles of adult learning. The next section of this chapter reviews the literature that pertains specifically to police training academies.

The Application of Andragogy within Police Academies

Although there are several studies on police officer training conducted in Canada, the United States, the United Kingdom, and some European countries, there appears to be a paucity of research which is specific to instructor competencies. In Canada, the Police Sector Council is a centralized repository for police research conducted in Canada, and to the best of the executive director's knowledge, there has been little research regarding instructor competencies (personal communication with G. Gruson, August 1, 2013). Of the research conducted overseas, researchers have identified several themes, but again, it appears that very little research details what, if any, qualifications an instructor employed within a police training academy should possess.

With reference to research conducted into police training in Canada, one study detailed the training process that individuals must undergo if they wished to become police officers with the Surete du Quebec (Lussier, 2004). Every candidate must have at least the three year police technology diploma from one of the ten provincial colleges, prior to entering the E'cole nationale de police du Quebec (ENPQ). The ENPQ then provides the qualifying professional training that is required to become a police officer within the Province of Quebec. Once the candidate has graduated from ENPQ, they then become eligible for employment with the Surete du Quebec. Lussier explained that the college diploma covers general training for police recruits and the acquisition of the knowledge, abilities, and skills required to perform police work including criminology, communications, law, sociology, psychology, defensive driving and physical intervention. In this study, there was no discussion regarding the qualifications, skills and abilities of the instructional staff or the model of instruction utilized for this training.

Snook conducted a study into the in-service training of officers with respect to police witness interview training, and although not focused on academy training, they did make some interesting observations. They surveyed 171 police officers and found that the training for this skill was "limited and came from several disparate sources" (Snook, et al., 2012). They also highlighted the fact that the explanation for the observed inadequacies was speculative at best as no research existed regarding this training.

In his doctoral thesis, Trovato (2008) made some interesting observations. He cited the work of Dailey (1975), Guller (1972), and Tyre & Braunstein (1992) all of whom had conducted research into the conduct of police officers in the execution of their duties. Those with formal post-secondary education were found to be less rigid and authoritarian; and were four times less likely to be disciplined or terminated (p. 30). Trovato concluded that policing in the 21st century must include a balance of police training and education that emphasizes communication skills, negotiating skills, critical thinking and research skills to better handle a growing number of social, legal, and economic type problems that arise in communities" (p. 46). He added that he could not address what the required level of education was in order to secure these skills as "the available research is very limited and offers little confidence" (p. 47).

An examination of some research from the United States revealed that few academy instructors had any concept of adult learning principles or an andragogic approach to instruction (McDermott & Hulse, 2012; Conti, 2011; Werth, 2011; Donavant, 2009; Hundersmarck, 2009; Buerger, 2004; Quinet et al., 2003). Many of the studies concluded that the adoption of either an andragogic approach or application of adult learning principles would enhance the quality of the training program (Werth, 2011; Donavant, 2009, Hundersmarck, 2009; White & Escobar, 2008). From the perspective of instructor qualifications and abilities, none of the studies examined

instructor selection or professional development. Finally, only two of the studies, (White & Escobar, 2008; Buerger, 2004) addressed the opportunity to improve training through active partnerships with post-secondary institutions.

In his doctoral thesis, Werth (2009) made a number of very specific observations regarding police officer training. He noted that there is a gap in professional literature regarding the utilization of adult learning principles at police academies even though the academies he studied were utilizing a problem based learning delivery model (p. 3). He went on to detail that in the United States, the traditional police training model involved lecture and watching video tapes. He cited the work of Birzer (2003), by noting that the move to police training based on adult learning principles has been slow, in part due to the fact that trainers must not only be subject matter experts, but they must also have the ability to effectively facilitate the learning process (p. 32). He also observed that at that point in time there did not exist "published information related to the number of police training academies utilizing adult learning techniques" (p. 33).

Birzer (2003) highlighted some of the deficiencies when he suggested that police training needed to evolve into a more problem and student centered curriculum as most police academies in the United States were using a lecture format. He concluded that in order for policing to become more community focused, officer training must become more effective in both form and substance, and that academy curriculum and instructional methodologies must evolve.

Marenin (2004) made similar observations. He wrote of the need for police training to move from the traditional behavior based teaching, to one where there is the mutual involvement of the expert and the novice in the learning process. He concluded that if the learning of democratic values was confined to just the classroom and delivered by the best of instructors and

with appropriate methodologies, this would still be insufficient as the content delivered would lack the appropriate context (p. 115). Marenin (2004) made one further key observation when he noted the importance of linking conceptual and practical skills; "it is clear that training the trainer is as important as training new recruits" (p. 116).

The experience outside of North America appeared to be somewhat different. For example, in the United Kingdom, new officer instructors participate in the Trainer's Development Program (IDP), which is a ten week full-time residential program including the work of Maslow, Rogers, and Kolb (Smith, 2009). Through his research Smith (2009) concluded that in order to be effective, instructors need to know themselves, have high levels of emotional intelligence; and show empathy, care, and compassion for their students (p. 4).

Based on a massive review of the structure and operations of policing in England, Cordner and Shain (2011) called for the responsibility for police training to shift from police services over to colleges and universities (p. 281). They cited the work of Craig Paterson who stated: "higher education promotes creativity and critical thinking ahead of control and the potential to counteract the cultural instincts of criminal justice institutions through flexible value-systems that are more suited to the demands of community-oriented policing and an enhanced focus on ethical and professional behavior" (p. 283).

Nikolou-Walker & Meaklin (2010) noted the police training in Northern Ireland followed the traditional approach to police officer training that was lecture-based memorization and pedagogical style techniques (p. 359). They highlighted the need for a learning model that moved away from a skill-based focus which primarily focuses on cognitive processes to the exclusion of interpersonal dimensions (p. 360). They promoted the need to move to an experiential learning model that promoted student involvement and the development of

analytical and problem-solving abilities. They concluded that police education needed to better equip officers to engage in problem-oriented policing.

Police services in Sweden experienced a similar type of analysis and subsequent course of action. In 2006 the Swedish government established a committee tasked with studying how to transform the basic police training program into a university education (Karp & Stenmark, 2011). That initiative resulted in a curriculum in which police officers and university teachers work together to plan and implement various program modules (p. 8). Although not explicitly stated, a conclusion was that the involvement of university educators is primarily due to their knowledge and expertise in adult education.

Summary

Based on the review of the literature, a traditional approach of police officer training based on behaviorist learning will not provide the skills and abilities required by the police officer of tomorrow. There is considerable evidence that the affective environment greatly influences learner success and that cognitive processes have direct impact on learner success. What also appears evident is that if the outcome from training is higher order thinking, then a full understanding and embracement of constructivist learning theory is critically important. In support of this position, the following comments from Baruque and Melo (2004), Gioti (2010), and Brooks and Brooks (1993) are noteworthy:

- Baruque and Melo (2004): "In this work, the authors analyze the learning theory underlying the curriculum and pedagogy of career and technical education. They point out that behaviorism was in place during the last century and that constructivism should be considered in preparing workers to enter an environment

that demands increasingly higher orders of thinking, problem solving, and collaborative working skills." (p. 349)

- Gioti (2010): "The aim of the educational process is to give practical knowledge and skills for problem solving to learners. The role of the educator is to organise the learning process and to guide-coach the cooperative, experiential and experimental learning founded on real-life situations. In progressive principles of adult education learners' needs, interests and experiences are of significant importance; they become part of the learning process while the learner takes an active role in it. The methods that are utilized are problem-solving, scientific or experimental method, simulations, group investigation, projects, and cooperative learning." (p. 4)
- Brooks and Brooks (1993): "Constructivism stands in contrast to the more deeply rooted ways of teaching that have long typified the American classroom. Traditionally, learning has been thought to be a "mimetic" activity, a process that involves students repeating, or miming, newly presented information (Jackson, 1986) in reports or on quizzes and tests. Constructivist teaching practices, on the other hand, help learners to internalize and reshape, or transform, new information. Transformation occurs through the creation of new understandings (Jackson, 1986 Gardner 1991b) that result from the emergence of new cognitive structures." (p. 15)

Chapter Three Methodology

Introduction

The purpose of this study is to compare the instructional practices of contemporary police officer training programs with the six major principles of adult education. Specifically, this research will assess instructor familiarization and utilization of adult learning principles. This assessment may identify opportunities to enhance police recruit training through enhanced learner engagement. The study includes three provincial police training academies and six municipal academies.

I have adopted a constructivist paradigm as the philosophical orientation of this research. Using a mixed methods design, I have explored the extent to which police training academies are familiar with, and are creating, learning environments that utilize adult learning principles. In order to make that determination, I have asked instructors to complete individual surveys and I have interviewed key informants within a number of large and medium sized police training academies.

Research Approach

The goal of this research is to examine a number of police training academies within Canada in order to gain a better understanding of the degree to which administrators and instructors understand and utilize the principles of adult education. In order to do this, I used a mixed methods approach involving two research activities. The first activity involved a survey of instructors from a number of police training academies. The survey identifies the principles of adult learning scale (PALS), as developed by Conti (Galbraith, 2004). The data gathered from this survey provided information on the extent to which instructors within police training academies understood and utilized the principles of adult learning.

The second research activity involved individual interviews with key personnel within the police training academies. These individuals have intimate knowledge of the operations, philosophies, and policies governing the training programs they administer within their specific academy. I recorded these interviews and the qualitative analysis of the transcriptions of these interviews allowed me to search for a number of themes or patterns within and between the training programs.

Participants

Participants for the research included key informants who were administrators from large- and medium-sized police training academies. Large-sized academies were the Justice Institute of British Columbia (JIBC), the Saskatchewan Police College (SPC), the Ontario Provincial Police training academy (OPC), and the Atlantic Police Academy (APA). Large-sized academies are large training centres with curriculum design departments. Medium-sized police academies included Edmonton, Calgary, Ottawa, Toronto, and Halifax each of which may or may not have dedicated curriculum design departments.

The initial step in conducting my research was to gain the support of the senior administration for these police academies. In order to do this I made the initial contact with individuals within each of these academies that I had known previously. In some cases that person was the officer in charge of the training academy and they gave permission for the research to take place. That individual also determined who would participate in the interview, and provided the email addresses for the instructors from that academy that I subsequently invited to participate. In some cases, the researcher completed formal applications to conduct research as required by the police agency prior to commencing the research. In those cases the

individual that I interviewed completed the agreement to participate form prior to the interview (Appendix A).

Once each police academy granted permission to participate in the research, I contacted the key informant by telephone and arranged for a time for that interview to take place. In most cases I interviewed participants on the phone, however I conducted two interviews in person.

For the instructor survey, I requested the email addresses for all instructors within each specific academy. I then sent an invitation to participate to each of those instructors through email with the link to Survey Monkey™ and directed them to follow the link and if they consented, complete the survey (Appendix B).

When I forwarded the survey to each police service, the survey included an acknowledgement section ensuring that each individual completing the survey was doing so voluntarily and that I would keep all of the personal information gathered through the survey confidential and anonymous. Each of these survey participants was also aware that the researcher was an administrator of a police training program in Manitoba and that I was gathering this information for the sole purpose of this study.

The second research activity involved interviews with key informants from each participating academy. These individuals had extensive knowledge of the training programs within their respective academies, the philosophy of the training academy, and the policies of their academy with respect to the methods of instruction conducted within the academy. Prior to conducting each of the interviews, I had each individual complete the consent to participate agreement (Appendix C). The questions as detailed in the Key Informant Interview guide (Appendix D), guided each of the interviews.

Research Instruments

I utilized two research instruments to help develop my understanding of the extent to which police academy instructors were familiar with, and were creating, learning environments that utilize adult learning principles. The first instrument was the survey questionnaire (Appendix B) that instructors from each participating police agency completed. Conti (2004) developed the survey as a means of determining the understanding and application of adult learning principles. The survey appeared in the publication by Galbraith (2004) and he has given me permission to use the survey (Appendix E).

Survey instrument: The Principles of Adult Learning Scale. The Principles of Adult Learning Scale (PALS) survey instrument included 44 questions with responses given on a Likert scale. The overall score attained is the Principles of Adult Learning Scale Score (PALS Score). The PALS Score could be a maximum value of 220 (44 X 5).

The survey instrument also included instructions for analyzing the responses. If the overall score for a respondent was over 146 (the mean), then this score was indicative of a learning environment that was learner-centered. If the respondent's score was below 146, then this score was indicative of a learning environment that was teacher-centered.

The standard deviation for the PALS score was 20, so results 20 or more above the mean (>166) indicated a learning environment that was strongly learner-centered and a score more than 20 below than the mean score (<126) indicated a learning environment that was very teacher-centered. A learning environment that is learner-centered is more likely to engage in activities that aligned with the principles of adult learning. Results below the mean are indicative of an environment where the application of adult learning principles is not as evident (Conti, 2004).

I used the data analysis scheme provided by Conti (2004) to interpret the extent to which each of the respondents were using adult learning principles within their own teaching and learning environments. From the collective data I drew conclusions with respect to the level of instructors' understanding of the principles of adult learning in large- and medium-sized police training academies.

The design of the survey instrument also allowed for certain questions to be grouped together in order to examine other aspects of an individual's teaching style. Conti (2004) grouped these questions and called each group a factor. He identified seven factors consisting of:

1. Learner-centered activities
2. Personalized instruction
3. Relating to experience
4. Assessing student needs
5. Climate building
6. Participation in the learning process
7. Flexibility for personal development

These results allowed the researcher to examine each of these factors and determine if a respondent identified one or more of them as being learner-centered or teacher-centered. Although the overall PALS score may have indicated that a respondent was primarily learner-centered or teacher-centered, grouping of survey questions allowed me to disaggregate each respondent's results and through comparison, determine if individual factors were predominantly teacher-centered or student centered.

Key informant interviews. The second instrument was a set of interview questions for the key informants from the participating training academies (Appendix D). This instrument allowed me to obtain the informed opinion of key personnel within police training academies regarding (a) future challenges facing police officers, (b) how police training programs are addressing those challenges; and (c) the applications of the principles of adult learning in their police training curriculum.

Data Collection

In April 2014 I prepared and distributed the instructor survey to 139 instructors using the email address provided by the administration from nine police officer training academies. Each instructor received an individual email which included the link to the survey instrument. I requested that participants complete and return the survey prior to the 31st of July, 2014.

Survey Monkey™ allowed me to identify those instructors who did not respond. Using that function, I sent out a second request to those instructors. The final date to submit survey responses was August 31st, 2014. Ultimately, 48 participants responded to the survey giving a response rate of 34.5%. Analysis of the completed surveys began during the first week of October, 2014.

I interviewed administrators from nine training academies from across Canada and recorded each of them. Of the nine academies, provincial authorities administered three of them and municipal authorities administered the other six. The transcriptions of these interviews provided the qualitative data for this research. I scheduled the first of the interviews in August of 2014 and I conducted the final interview in October, 2014. The analysis of the data gathered from these interviews began in December of 2014.

Data Analysis

I scored the data gathered through the administration of the Principles of Adult Learning Scale (PALS) and scoring guide developed by Conti (Galbraith, 2004, p. 91). This guide identifies which questions are positive and which ones are negative indicators with respect to the seven factors related to adult learning principles. Once I received the completed surveys I scored the results using the evaluation scale, and these results allowed me to make general statements regarding the degree to which that instructor understood and applied the principles of adult learning.

Through the process of categorization and comparison (Newsome, 2016), I was able to examine the data based on whether the respondent was from a provincially administered academy or whether the respondent was from a municipally administered academy. This allowed me to make additional observations.

Upon the completion of the interviews with the key informants, I had them transcribed into textual format. This allowed me to examine the responses from each key informant in order to look for themes and patterns regarding the understanding and application of adult learning principles within the academy. I utilized two methods for identifying themes within the data. The first method was repetitions. As described by Ryan and Bernard (2003), "The more the same concept occurs in a text, the more likely it is a theme. How many repetitions are enough to constitute an important theme, however, is an open question and one only the investigator can decide" (p. 90). I analyzed each individual interview in order to identify re-occurring concepts. If a concept appeared several times throughout an interview and this specific concept appeared within other interviews, then I identified that as an emerging theme.

The second method of thematic analysis was to look for indigenous typologies or categories (Ryan & Bernard, 2003). As with many sub-cultures, policing has terms and expressions which are unique to the profession. I searched for terms and expressions that sound familiar and from the context of their usage, I was able to identify emerging themes.

The next step in data analysis was to compare the findings from the participant survey with findings from the key informant interviews. This analysis allowed me to identify similarities and differences between what the instructors said they were doing during instruction, and what the key informants believed was taking place within the academy. From that analysis I made some conclusions regarding the extent to which police service instructors and police academies understand and use instructional approaches that align with the principles of adult learning.

Chapter Four Findings

Introduction

This chapter presents the findings from the respondent surveys and the key informant interviews. I engaged in two research activities in order to obtain the research data. The first activity was the distribution of the Principles of Adult Learning Scale (PALS) survey to instructors from various police training academies from across Canada. I analyzed the data obtained from these surveys based on the scoring key developed by Conti (Conti, 2004, p. 90).

The second research activity was interviews with key informants which followed a set of interview questions (Appendix D). I analyzed the interview data into themes and word frequency counts aided by the NVivo™ computer software program.

PALS Scores of Individual Respondents

I distributed 139 invitations to participate in the survey to instructors teaching in police academies throughout Canada. Forty-eight instructors completed the survey resulting in a participation rate of 34.5 %. I emailed each instructor with the request to participate and if the instructors choose to participate they followed an electronic link provided to them within the email. The link was to Survey Monkey™, an electronic survey instrument. I was able to electronically access the surveys completed by each respondent. I scored each completed survey using the Conti schema (Conti, 2004, p. 90). The results of this scoring scheme became the Principles of Adult Learning Scale Score (PALS Score) for each respondent.

I developed a scatter plot of the PALS score for each individual respondent (Appendix F). The scatter plot of the respondents PALS scores show that 43 out of 48 (89.6%) of respondents had a PALS Score that reflect a teacher-centered style (Conti, 2004). Out of those 43 respondents, 20 (46.5%) had scores that were *strongly* teacher-centered (Conti, 2004).

Notably, there were no respondent scores that were indicative of a *strongly* learner-centered teaching style.

Collectively, the PALS scores had a random distribution across all academies. Some academies had respondent scores that were indicative of being learner-centered: other academies had respondent scores that were teacher-centered or *strongly* teacher-centered. A more detailed analysis of all respondent PALS Scores revealed the following results:

- 89.6 % of respondent scores were in the range which indicates a teacher-centered teaching style(Conti, 2004);
- 10.4 % of respondent scores were in the range which indicates a learner-centered teaching style (Conti, 2004).

When I examined the scatter plot for other trends I noted:

- 58.3 % were in the range that is indicative of an instructor that utilizes some learner-centered and some teacher-centered activities (within one standard deviation of the mean);
- 41.7 % were *strongly* teacher-centered (more than one standard deviation below the mean).

In summary, the analysis of the scatter plot indicated that the predominant teaching style for respondents from all of the police training academies involved in this study, was teacher-centered or *strongly* teacher-centered (Conti, 2004). That said, the scatter plot also showed that some instructors were using some learner-centered activities.

PALS Scores by Type of Academy

Individual respondents to the PALS survey came from three provincial training academies and six municipal training academies. I categorized the PALS Scores based on the

type of academy: provincial or municipal (Appendix G). This allowed for another way of examining the PALS Scores although I made no specific conclusions due to wide variation in the number of individuals who responded to the PALS survey. For example, some of the training academies only had one or two respondents.

That said, there are some noticeable differences when I categorized the PALS Scores by the type of academy (Table 1). Specifically, a higher percentage of respondent scores from municipal training academies (13.8 %), indicated a learner-centered teaching style as compared to the percentage of responses from provincial training academies (5.3 %). This also meant that a higher percentage of respondent scores from provincial academies (94.7 %), indicated a teacher-centered teaching style as compared to the percentage of responses from municipal academies (86.2 %).

The PALS Scores also revealed that a greater percentage of respondent scores from provincial academies were *strongly* teacher-centered (47.4%) as compared to the percentage of respondent scores from municipal academies (37.9%). Table 1 shows that 62.1 % of PALS Scores from respondents teaching in municipal academies had a mixed teaching styles which included some teacher-centered and some learner-centered activities. In contrast, 52.6% of respondents from provincial academies used a mixed teaching style of teacher and learner-centered activities.

Table 1

Percentage of PALS Scores by Type of Academy

	% learner-centered instructors	% teacher-centered instructors	% of respondent scores within 1 SD of M	% of respondent scores >1 SD above M	% of respondent scores > 1SD below M
Provincial Academies	5.3	94.7	52.6	0	47.4
Municipal Academies	13.8	86.2	62.1	0	37.9

The Seven Factors of Teaching Style

The PALS score indicates a respondent's overall teaching style, however by grouping together specific questions within the survey, seven factors of teaching style can be identified. Each factor contains a similar group of items that make up a major component of teaching style. High scores in each factor represent support of the learner-centered concept implied in the factor name. Low factor scores indicate support of the opposite concept. Adding up the points for each item in the factor produces the factor score (Conti, 2004, p. 80). The seven factors are:

1. learner-centered activities,
2. personalized instruction,
3. relating to experience,
4. assessing student needs,
5. climate building,
6. participation in the learning process; and,
7. flexibility for personal development.

I examined the survey results for each of these seven factors from two perspectives. The first perspective allowed me to make certain observations of the seven factors of teaching styles

as reflected by responses from all of the respondents to the survey. For the second perspective, I examined the seven factors of teaching based on whether the respondent was from a provincial training academy or a municipal training academy. However, as previously stated, some of the academies had only one or two responses and therefore it was difficult to make any specific conclusions regarding the focus of teaching within any one academy.

Learner-centered activities. The first teaching style factor I examined was learner-centered activities. The respondent scores for a specific set of questions within the PALS survey reflects the degree to which that instructor's teaching style engages activities that provide for learner-centered activities. A high score for this factor would indicate that the instructor engages in learner-centered activities (Conti, 2004, p. 80). This type of instructor would:

- support a collaborative mode and reject teacher-centered behaviours;
- allow initiating action by the student; and
- encourage students to take responsibility for their own learning.

In contrast, low sores on this factor indicate that an instructor would:

- prefer formal testing over informal evaluation techniques;
- have a heavy reliance on standardized tests
- favour exercising control in the classroom by assigning quiet desk-work;
- use disciplinary action when needed;
- determine the educational objectives for each student;
- value practicing one basic teaching method; and,
- support the conviction that most adults have a similar style of learning.

The PALS Scores from all respondents revealed that their teaching styles were a combination of both teacher-centered and learner-centered activities (Appendix H). Seventy-five

percent of the respondent scores reflected a learning environment that embraces learning activities that were learner-centered. Of the remaining respondent scores (25%) half were *strongly* learner-centered and half were *strongly* teacher-centered. Overall, the majority of respondent scores are reflective of learning environments that provide learning activities that are responsive to their students' needs and desires.

The analysis of respondent surveys based on the type of training academic revealed that a greater percentage of respondents from municipal training academies rated their engagement of learner-centered activities to be learner-centered (62.1 %), than did the percentage of respondents from provincial academies (52.6 %) (Table 2).

Table 2
Percentage of Instructors Who Provide Learner Centered Learning Activities.

	% learner-centered instructors	**% teacher-centered instructors**	**% of respondent scores within 1 SD of M**	**% of respondent scores >1 SD above M**	**% of respondent scores > 1 SD below M**
Provincial Academies	52.6	47.4	63.2	21.1	15.7
Municipal Academies	62.1	37.9	82.8	6.9	10.3

In addition, a greater percentage of respondents from municipal academies indicated that they utilized both learner-centered and teacher-centered activities. Finally, the scores for respondents from provincial academies, with respect to this factor, are more extreme. That is, a greater percentage of those respondent scores reflect that they used activities that were either *strongly* teacher-centered (15.7% vs. 10.3 %), or *strongly* student-centered (21.1 % vs. 6.9 %) (Conti, 2004).

Personalized instruction. The second teaching style was the extent to which respondent scores reflected instructor activities that focused on personalized instruction. A high respondent score would indicate an instructor that engaged in personalized instruction and they would:

- set objectives that were based on individual motives and abilities;
- provide instruction that was self-paced;
- utilize various methods, materials, and assignments; and,
- encourage cooperation rather than competition.

And an instructor that scored low for this factor would:

- have a pre-determined set of learning objectives;
- follow a schedule of instruction;
- prefer one mode of instruction – usually lecture; and,
- encourage competition.

The majority of all respondent scores (93.8 %), revealed a personalized instruction style which reflected a teacher-centered approach (Conti, 2004). Furthermore, 66.7 % of all respondent scores reflected a personalized instruction style that was *strongly* teacher-centered (Appendix I). According to Conti (2004), these results indicate a learning environment which is teacher-centered and where the instructor follows a pre-determined set of learning objectives, a set schedule of instruction, and one mode of instruction.

When I examined the data on the basis of the type of training academy that respondents were from, I again observed that there were some differences between respondent scores for provincial academies and those from municipal academies (Table 3).

Table 3

Percentage of Instructors Who Believe They Can Personalize Instruction.

	% learner-centered instructors	**% teacher-centered instructors**	**% of respondent scores within 1 SD of M**	**% of respondent scores > 1SD above M**	**% of respondent scores> 1 SD below M**
Provincial Academies	0	100	26.3	0	73.7
Municipal Academies	10.3	89.7	37.9	0	62.1

A greater percentage of respondents from provincial academies reflected a personalized instruction style that was *strongly* teacher-centered (73.7%) compared to the percentage of respondent scores from municipal academies (62.1 %). Also, the percentage of respondent scores from municipal academies that reflected a personalized instruction style that was learner-centered (10.3 %), was greater than the percentage of respondent scores from provincial academies (0 %).

Lastly, there is a greater percentage of respondent scores from municipal training academies that reflected a personalized instruction style that utilized some learner-centered and some teacher-centered activities (37.9% vs. 26.3%). So even though the overall respondent scores with respect to personalizing instruction reflected that respondents engaged in teacher-centered activities, there were respondent scores from municipal academies that indicated some respondents utilized learner-centered activities (10.3%).

Relating to experience. The third factor that Conti identified is the instructor's ability to take into account the students' prior experiences and encourage them to relate their new learning to that previous experience (Conti, 2004). Whether it be from the theoretical perspective of constructivist methodology, or as highlighted by Mayen (2011), previous experiences may prove to be a rich resource as well as possible obstacles to further learning. The environment within which adult learning takes place must give considerable consideration to what each individual brings with them into the class. According to Conti (2004, p. 81), an instructor that scores high for this factor is learner-centered and would:

- plan activities that take into account your students' prior experiences;
- encourage students to relate their new learning to experiences;
- make learning relevant, learning episodes are organized according to the problems that the students encounter in everyday living; and,
- encouraged students to ask basic questions about the nature of their society.

And an instructor who scored low for this factor would have a teacher-centered style and would:

- not give consideration to a students' prior experience; and,
- view students as a tabula rasa that they must transform.

The survey scores for all respondents revealed an even split between those that consider the students' previous experience from a learner-centered perspective (50 %) and those that consider the students' previous experience from a teacher-centered perspective (50 %) (Appendix J). Seventy-five percent of respondent scores indicate an instructional style that considers the students' previous experience from both a teacher-centered and a learner-centered perspective (within one standard deviation of the mean score). The results also revealed that 25

% of the respondent scores were reflective of an instructional style that considers a students' previous experience from a *strongly t*eacher-centered perspective. Overall, the respondent scores revealed that the instructors do consider a learners past experience and how that experience may impact the learning experience within their academies.

When I examined the respondent scores based on the type of academy, I observed that with respect to the consideration of a students' past experience, the percentage of respondent scores from municipal academies that engaged learner-centered activities (58.6 %), was slightly higher than the percentage of respondents from provincial academies (42.1 %) (Table 4).

Table 4

Percentage of Instructors Who Take Into Account the Students Prior Experience

	% learner-centered instructors	**% teacher-centered instructors**	**% of respondent scores within 1 SD of M**	**% of respondent scores> 1 SD above M**	**% of respondent scores> 1 SD below M**
Provincial Academies	42.1	57.9	63.2	10.5	26.3
Municipal Academies	58.6	41.4	62.1	13.8	24.1

In addition, the data revealed that a slightly higher percentage of respondent scores from municipal academies that considered a students' past experience from a *strongly* learner-centered perspective (13.8%) was slightly higher that the percentage of respondent scores from provincial academies (10.5 %). At the same time, there was a slightly higher percentage of respondent scores from provincial academies that considered a students' past experience from a *strongly* teacher-centered perspective (26.3%), than respondents from municipal academies (24.1%).

Assessing student needs. The fourth factor that I examined was the respondent's evaluation of their ability to assess student needs. When respondent scores are above the mean

score (146), this indicates that when the respondent is assessing the needs of their students, they are learner-centered and they engage in activities such as:

- conducting individual conferences with each student;
- providing informal counseling to each student;
- assessing the gap between student performance and goals; and,
- assisting the students in developing short and long range goals.

When respondent scores are indicative of being teacher-centered, they would engage in activities that (a) have the expectation that students meet learning outcome; and (b) focus on pre-determined and set forms of assessment

When I analyzed all 48 respondent scores, the majority (68.8%) indicated that with reference to assessing their students' needs, the activities that they engaged in were teacher-centered (Appendix K). Of those respondent scores, a significant percentage (51.5%) indicated that when assessing their students' needs they were *strongly* teacher-centered. Overall, 17 out of the 48 respondents (35.4%) indicated a strong belief that they were not able to assess an individual's training needs and then tailor their instructional activities in order to better suit that person. Even though the general trend of the respondent scores indicated that their ability to assess student' needs was teacher-centered, 58.3% did indicate that they utilized varying degrees of teacher-centered and learner-centered activities (within one standard deviation of the mean score).

When I examined the respondent scores based on the type of academy the respondent was from, the percentage of respondents from municipal academies that indicated their ability to assess student' needs was learner-centered (37.9%), was more than twice the percentage of respondents from provincial academies (15.8%) (Table 5).

Table 5

Percentage of Instructors Who Assess the Individual Student's Needs.

	% learner-centered instructors	**% teacher-centered instructors**	**% of respondent scores within 1 SD of M**	**% of respondent scores> 1 SD above M**	**% of respondent scores> 1 SD below M**
Provincial Academies	15.8	84.2	42.1	5.3	52.6
Municipal Academies	37.9	62.1	62.1	10.3	27.6

In addition, the percentage of respondents from provincial academies that indicated their ability to assess student' needs was *strongly* teacher-centered (52.6%), was approximately double the percentage of respondents from the municipal academies (27.6%).

Climate building. The fifth factor included in the PALS survey was the inclination of the instructor to create a friendly and informal climate as an initial step in the learning process. When doing so, a learner-centered instructor engages in activities such as:

- encouraging dialogue and interaction between students;
- allowing for frequent breaks; and,
- encouraging risk taking and acceptance of errors as a natural part of learning.

As opposed to a teacher-centered instructor who would engage in activities such as:

- maintaining a quiet focused classroom;
- following a set timetable with pre-determined breaks; and,
- reducing assessment scores when students make mistakes.

The respondent scores revealed that with respect to climate building within their classrooms, the majority utilized activities that were learner-centered (67 %). Overall, the

respondent scores identified that almost all (95.8%) responded to climate building by utilizing a combination of learner-centered and teacher-centered activities (Appendix L).

When I examined the data with respect to the respondent being from a provincial or municipal academy, the results were quite consistent (Table 6).

Table 6

Percentage of Instructors Who Promote a Climate Building Environment

	% learner-centered instructors	**% teacher-centered instructors**	**% of respondent scores within 1 SD of M**	**% of respondent scores> 1 SD above M**	**% of respondent scores> 1 SD below M**
Provincial Academies	73.7	26.3	84.2	10.5	5.3
Municipal Academies	62.1	37.9	93.1	3.4	3.4

The majority of respondent scores from both types of academies indicated that they addressed the learning climate within their classroom by utilizing both teacher-centered and learner-centered activities (84.2% and 93.1% respectively). In both cases there is a higher percentage of respondent scores that identify climate building activities that were specifically learner-centered (73.7% and 62.1% respectively). These results are consistent with the overall results (Appendix L). The data provides evidence that with respect to climate building within the learning environment, the majority of respondents within both provincial and municipal police training academies engage in learner-centered activities.

Participation in the learning process. The sixth factor of the PALS survey is the ability of the student to participate in the learning process. As described by Conti (2004, p. 81), an instructor who is learner-centered with respect to this factor would:

- encourage learners to be directly involved in identifying the problems they wish to solve;
- engage students in making decision regarding the topics that would be covered; and,
- involve students in deciding how to evaluate their efforts.

And an instructor who is teacher-centered with respect to this factor would:

- pre-determine the problems that the students would engage;
- have a lesson plan in place that determined what would be covered in class, in what order, and when; and'
- would assess student performance according to set standards.

The respondent scores with respect to having students engage in decisions around the learning process, revealed that their activities were *strongly* teacher-centered (Appendix M). Out of the 48 respondent scores, the majority showed that the respondent's engagement of students in their own learning process was teacher-centered (81.3%), and of those, the majority indicated that their engagement of the students was *strongly* teacher-centered (64.1%). Just under half of the respondent scores (47.9 %) revealed that some respondents did engage the student in the learning process by employing some teacher-centered and some learner-centered activities (respondent scores that were within one standard deviation of the mean score). These results imply that the majority of the respondents assessed their learning environments as providing little ability to engage students in self-directed learning or the establishment of the method of assessment.

When I examined the data with respect to the type of training academy the respondent was from, I again observed a discrepancy between the respondent scores for municipal academies and those from provincial academies (Table 7).

Table 7

Instructors Who Allow Students to Participate in the Learning Process

	% learner-centered instructors	**% teacher-centered instructors**	**% of respondent scores within 1 SD of M**	**% of respondent scores> 1 SD above M**	**% of respondent scores> 1 SD below M**
Provincial Academies	10.5	89.5	31.6	5.3	63.1
Municipal Academies	24.1	75.9	55.2	0	44.8

The respondent scores from municipal academies indicated that instructors who were learner-centered with respect to engaging their students in the learning process was higher than the percentage from provincial academies (24.1% vs. 10.5%), and instructors from municipal academies were also more likely to engage students in their own learning process by utilizing some teacher-centered and some learner-centered activities (55.2% vs 31.6%). Finally, the percentage of respondent scores from provincial academies that indicated they were *strongly* teacher-centered with respect to engaging the students in the learning process is much higher than those respondent scores from municipal academies (63.1% vs. 44.8%).

Flexibility-for personal development. The last factor that Conti identified within the principles of adult learning scale is the flexibility for personal development (Conti, 2004). Conti described this factor as being the instructor's perception as to their role in the personal development of each student (2004, p. 82). A learner-centered instructor would:

- see personal fulfillment as the central aim of education;
- adjust the classroom environment or the curricular content in order to meet the changing needs of their students; and,

- address issues related to values in order to stimulate understanding and future personal growth.

While a teacher-centered instructor would:

- see the acquisition of learning outcomes as the central aim of education;
- maintain a consistent learning environment; and,
- avoid the issue of values with respect to learning outcomes.

The majority of the respondent scores indicated that the assessment of their ability to be flexible in the development of an individual student was teacher-centered (Appendix N). At the same time, respondent scores showed that a significant percentage of instructors (75%) were flexible with respect to the development of the individual by engaging in both learner-centered and teacher-centered activities. What is quite revealing is that not one of the 48 respondent scores indicated support for flexibility by engaging in activities that were *strongly* learner-centered. On the other hand, 25 % of the respondent scores indicated that when it came to being flexible for the personal development of their students they engaged in activities that were *strongly* teacher-centered.

The results provided in Table 8 identify some differentiation between respondents from provincial and municipal training academies with respect to their ability to be flexible in the personal development of the individual student.

Table 8

Instructors Who Are Flexible Regarding the Development of Individual Students

	% learner-centered instructors	**% teacher-centered instructors**	**% of respondent scores within 1 SD of M**	**% of respondent scores> 1 SD above M**	**% of respondent scores> 1 SD below M**
Provincial Academies	21.1	78.9	57.9	0	42.1
Municipal Academies	34.5	65.5	86.2	0	13.8

A greater percentage of instructors from the municipal training academies had scores that indicated they engaged in learner-centered activities (34.5% vs. 21.1%). In addition, a greater percentage of respondents from the municipal academies stated that they could be flexible by engaging in some teacher-centered and some learner-centered activities (86.2% vs. 57.9%). Of significance is the higher percentage of instructors from provincial academies who responded that their ability to be flexible was *strongly* teacher-centered (42.1%), as opposed to respondent scores from municipal academies (13.8%).

Conclusions from Instructors' Surveys

Forty-eight instructors from various provincial and municipal police training academies across Canada completed the Principles of Adult Learning Scale (PALS) survey. I scored each survey based on the scoring key as developed by Conti (2004). The PALS scores indicated that the majority of respondents have a teaching style that is teacher-centered.

The questions asked within the PALS survey may be grouped together so as to identify seven factors of teaching style. Conti identified these seven factors as: learner-centered activities; personalized instruction; relating to experience; assessing student needs; climate building; participation in the learning process; and flexibility for personal development. The

activities that the instructors engage in with reference to each of these seven factors may be learner-centered or teacher-centered.

The respondents' scores from the PALS survey revealed that with respect to the engagement of learner-centered activities, the recognition of a students' previous experience, and climate building within their classroom, the majority of respondents engaged in activities that were learner-centered. For personalized instruction, assessing student needs, participation in the learning process, and flexibility for personal development, the majority of scores indicated that the instructors engaged in activities that were mostly teacher-centered. Many of the respondent scores for each of these four factors were *strongly* teacher-centered. Few of the seven factors had respondent scores that were *strongly* learner-centered. For factors such as learner-centered activities, relating to experience, and climate building, respondents scores revealed that although instructor activities that were mostly learner-centered, many did engage in both teacher-centered and learner-centered activities.

On a number of occasions the data revealed specific differences between respondent scores from municipal police training academies and those from provincial academies. For all seven factors, the data revealed that a greater percentage of respondents from the municipal academies engaged in activities that were learner-centered than did the percentage of respondents from the provincial academies. Also, for all seven factors, a higher percentage of respondent scores from the provincial academies indicated that they engaged in activities that were teacher-centered.

Interviews

Key informants from each participating police training academy agreed to participate in an interview and each responded to the same series of questions (Appendix D). I transcribed

each interview into written form and then utilized the NVivo™ computer program in order to identify common patterns and themes. This analysis resulted in the identification of five themes: social context, model of training delivery, contributing institutional factors, instructor qualifications, and principles of adult learning. It is noteworthy that the participants gave significantly more attention to the first two themes; social context and models of delivery.

Social context. The theme with the most coding references throughout the eight key informant interviews was the influence of social context on training. All eight participants made reference to social context, with five out of the eight having a large number of references (Chart A).

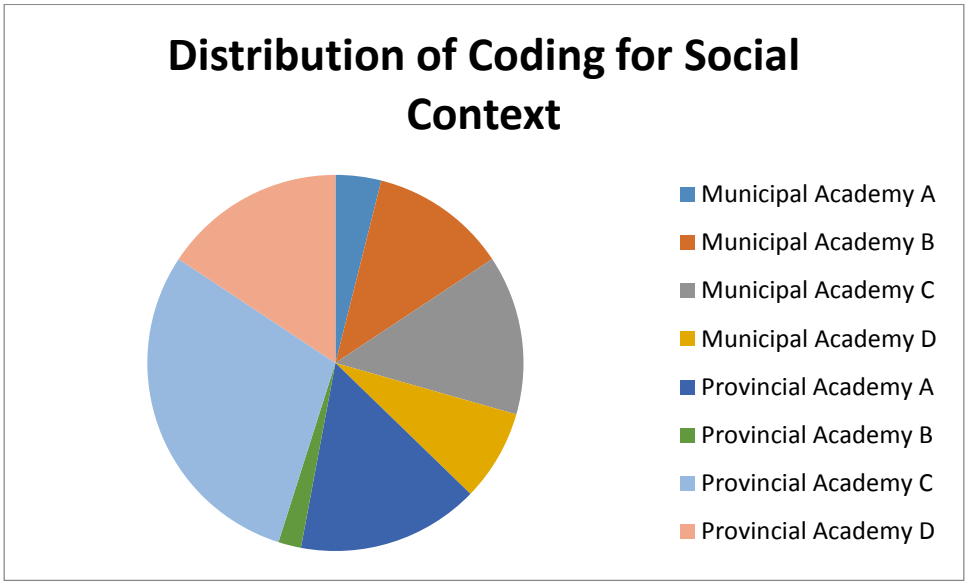

Chart A. Distribution of coding for social context.

Based on the coding references the participants were most concerned about the impact of increased public accountability, the influence of technology, and the personal qualities of the recruits when entering basic training. For example, when speaking about public accountability one participant stated

There's greater scrutiny, with all of these governing bodies, and with more transparency and with technology showing police response at calls. We have an opportunity to examine how the police are really responding. And, with the increased scrutiny, it is lessons learned, we are learning from our mistakes, we are learning from our behaviour, and because of that we are questioning ourselves. With all the many things being captured on video we are having the opportunity to review, to analyze, to assess, and identify further training gaps and ways to respond.

Another aspect of social context that was identify by a number of the participants was the influence of technology on training. The comments made included the challenge of incorporating technology into training programs, staying abreast of social media, and the training of police officers to utilize technology in areas such as data analysis and intelligence gathering. One participant explained these challenges as follows

How are we going to be able to leverage technology to help us do the training more effectively? That is a bit of a variable for us right now because a lot of educational tools and technology are cloud based.

And another participant added

We need to be more innovative in how we deliver training, so what we have done is turned to blended learning. So officers get two hours of classroom and then they get an hour and a half on the internet.

The final component of social context that a number of the participants commented on was the type of individual now applying to become police officers. The comments focused on the personal preparedness of recruits in areas such as the sense of entitlement, the need for instant gratification, lack of life skills, and the level of post-secondary education. The theme

voiced by the participants was that they found it increasingly more difficult for police services to recruit individuals who are mature, committed to community service, and who are willing to work hard in order to become professionally successful.

A number of the participants voiced concern about not being able to attract applicants into policing who possess the maturity and life skills required. For example, one interviewee commented

> *Instant gratification is unbelievable. We have 60 cadets and they write a three hour law exam on Monday afternoon and Tuesday morning they will look at the law instructor and ask him if he's got them marked yet.*

In contrast, one participant described police applicants as having more educated than ever before

> *I think the work has become more complex and I can say in some ways the quality of the recruit walking through the door is better. A lot of them are higher educated than ever before; there's masters degrees and there's doctors walking through our doors.*

What appears to be happening is the change that is actually taking place within the police services themselves and what they expect from their officers. Another participant voiced this internal change as follows

> *The difference is, I was forced to accept those practices 25 years ago and the recruits today are not. In fact, we encourage them to challenge, we need to be questioned and challenge the process. Our challenge is to get them to question and be creative and challenge the process at the right time*

In summation, although there seemed to be varying opinions voiced by the participants, it seems apparent that there is an ever increasing need for police services to understanding the social context within which they function.

Model of training delivery. The theme with the second most coding references was the model of training delivery. Every participant made comment about some aspect of the manner in which their police training academy was delivering the training to cadets (Chart B). In some cases (Municipal Academy A and Provincial Academy B), a great deal of their interviews centered on these concerns. These comments included topics such as: the assessment of learning, problem based learning, experiential learning, developmental learning, learner centered approach to learning, and blended learning. In general, five out of the eight participants made numerous comments regarding how their academies were delivering training.

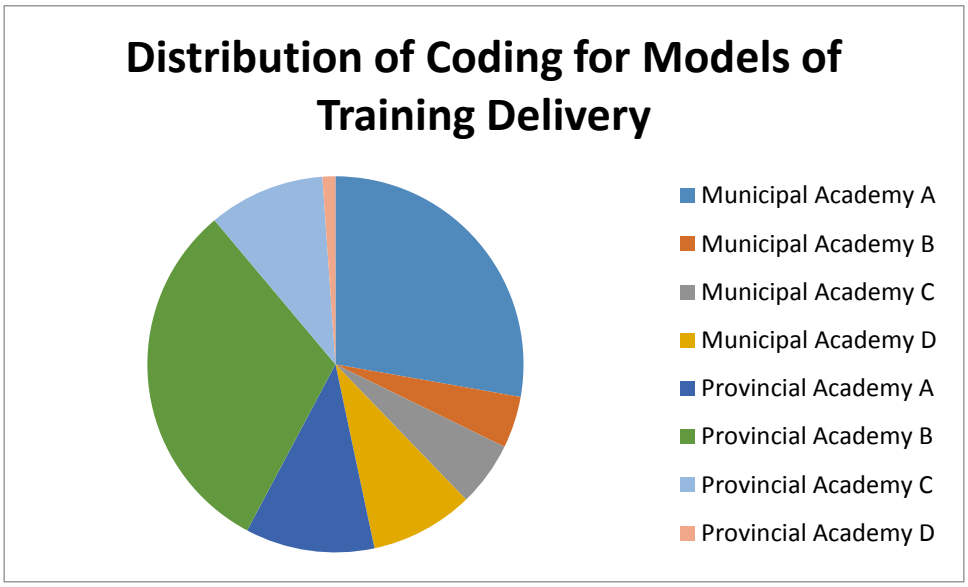

Chart B. Distribution of coding for models of training delivery.

The aspect that seemed to be of greatest concern to participants was the manner in which police training has traditionally assessed learning and skill acquisition, and whether those traditional evaluation tools are effective. For example, a couple of participants made these comments

We are always speaking about rubrics and trying to get it right. We have struggled for quite a while and we still are. We haven't got it perfect yet, and certainly in the skills area.

And

If I had it my way, I would move completely away from formal exams. There are certain things that we still test and I guess there are some that still require memorization, such as the command code. But we really have to move away from exams and put more into scenario based training with an assessment rubric.

In spite of this apparent struggle for some training academies, it appears that others are well into the change. For example, one participant gave the following explanation of how they conduct assessment

Particularly in our scenario-based training you've got almost every learning style. Because of that we give a verbal explanation of what is needed to be done and we provide a written rubric. Then the learner goes through the tactile, they are physically going and doing the activity. We then provide a verbal debriefing and the training officer provides a written feedback following that. So all of them are in there with scenario-based learning.

Next to forms of assessment, the topic of most concern to all participants was the methods they were using to deliver the training. All seemed quite comfortable with their understanding of outcomes and best practices, but there was concern voiced with respect to what delivery model would provide the greatest opportunity for their cadets to acquire new skills and knowledge. There was wide spread acknowledgement that the traditional model involving

lectures, power-points, memorization, and test taking was not very effective. The question was: what is the best model of delivery?

As was the case with assessment, I found that some of the participants were struggling with the answer to the question above, while others seem to be well on their way to discovering the answer. According to one participant

> *The challenge for our training bureaus and our police trainers is that we haven't been great at developing programs that challenge us to think further, challenge those problem solving skills, especially early on in the officers career.*

While other participants described their training programs as having aspects of problem based learning, scenario based learning, and other forms of experiential learning. One participant explained this very well

> *We have tried to align training to 21st century adult learning with integrated curriculum, lots of scenarios, problem based learning, and lots of critical thinking exercises. Decision making models were introduced early in the program and then we send them out on experiential learning activities in the community to build the community based policing projects.*

Many participants also spoke about the blended learning model of training delivery. While most participants indicated that their police services have embraced this form of learning and they view it as a very efficient and cost effective method of training, there were still some concerns. For instance, a participant raised this concern

> *There was some growing pains, absolutely. A staff-sergeant would give an officer two or three hours to work on e-learning but it would be from 3a.m. until 5 a.m. That is not very conducive to good learning.*

Most participants have described a training environment where there is no clear understanding of what exemplar police training should be. As a result, there is a lack of consistency in how the participating police academies are delivery training. On the other hand, there was a commonly held view that the training model must change and it is in the process of changing. All participants spoke of the need to move away from the lecture, memorization, test taking model that has traditionally been used and the need to move towards a model that incorporates problem solving, experiential learning. There was also significant agreement that there is a need to enhance the manner in which training programs assess learning.

Contributing institutional factors. The third theme I identified from the coding of participant interviews I have titled contributing institutional factors. The noteworthy topics within that theme included training standards, the amount of training, and the financial cost to deliver training. Every participant made comment on one of these concerns with six of the eight participants making numerous comments. For Provincial Academy C, these topics were of considerable concern (Chart C).

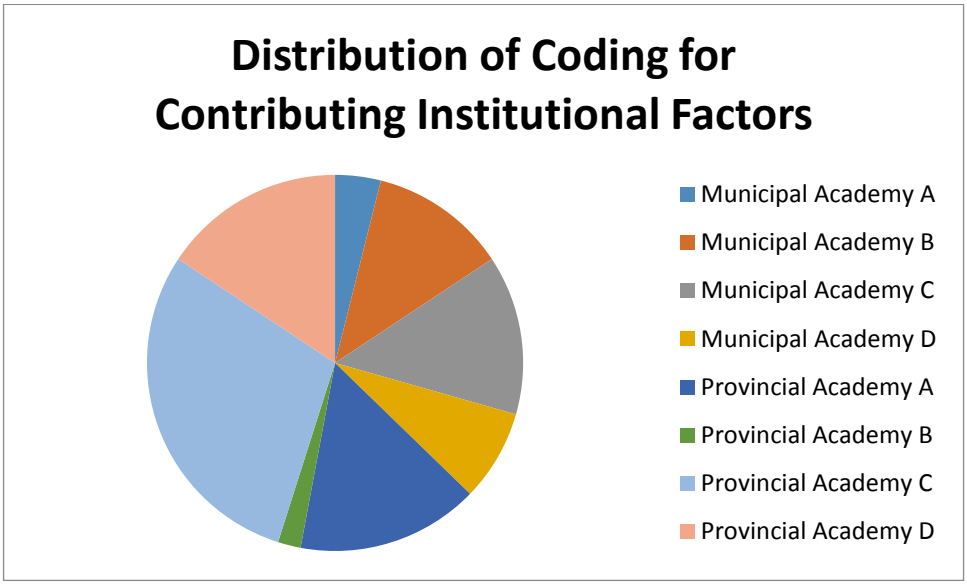

Chart C. Distribution of coding for contributing institutional factors.

The most reoccurring comments with respect to training standards is the impact of judicial decisions (case law) and inquiries, and the mandated training that results. Two examples of this concern were

> *For every case law, every provincial situation, it effects every single police officer. For example, we never had a workplace safety and health course, now all of a sudden every officer must take this mandatory training. Next thing you know the Emergency Management of Ontario has an Incident Management System and every single officer must take the IMS course.*

And

> *It just keeps going further and further. When I started our recruit training had five or perhaps six mandatory courses, now we're up around a dozen courses. Demand will always increase and that translates into mandatory training.*

This increased need for training not only caused more officers to be off the street and into the classroom, but also created greater demands on the training staff. Who was going to develop the new course and to what training standard? For example, within the province of Ontario there is the RCMP, the Ontario Provincial Police and a good number of very large municipal police services. Who is going to take the lead, develop the training and then are the other agencies obligated to use that training standard? As one participant identified, this can be a significant challenge for some agencies

> *For some of the larger services, they can probably pull it off, but the smaller services, you totally lose any kind of training standard. You don't know what people are being trained in, you don't know who the instructors are, so I think training starts to go all over the map.*

Another area of concern identified by many of the participants was the length of their training programs. As police services identify more and more mandatory training there is pressure to include all or part of that training into their recruit training programs. The problem with that situation is that administrators are already struggling with completing the identified training within the prescribed training period. Any extension to the training period has a significant financial implication so extending the time frame of recruit training is usually not an option. As illustrated by one of the participants, the challenge to police services then becomes a decision over what training to keep and what training to eliminated

> *New content, I would say that flexibility is not built in. Our training time is very valuable so basically every hour is accounted for. That is not to say that training is not evolving. If there is something urgent and we need to incorporate it in, we look at how to make the change. But certainly, if new content is introduced, we have to look at old content being re-evaluated and either cut or modified.*

The third area of this theme that garnered considerable attention by the participants was the cost of delivering training. The participants further identified that the cost of training really has two major components; the cost of recruit training and the cost of in-service training.

The cost of recruit training is very expensive and the candidate is not yet ready to work on the street. If the training program consists of eighteen or twenty weeks of academy and then twenty-six weeks of field training, then for almost one year, the new officer is on the payroll but not ready to work alone. Then add in the cost to run the academy and the salary dollars for the instructors and the administrators, it became clear that the initial training of new officers is a considerable cost to police services. To further complicate the situation, when police services

must reduce their budgets, often it is training that is scrutinized first. The frustration of dealing with this reality was evident in the response of one candidate

> *Once we cut what we can, we send our budget to the executive and they respond that it's not good enough. So we raise our hands up in the air and ask for their direction on what should be cut. Do they want us to stop use of force training, stop buying bullets, not send anyone to the Ident course or anyone to the bomb course? So we let them decide*

The other component, in-service training, has other significant costs over and above the operating costs of the training division. In order to participate in the in-service training, the police service must release the officer in question from their regular duties and that may necessitate a replacement officer in order to meet the minimum service standards.

Although the number of coded references to contributing institutional factors was not as high as social context and model of training delivery, there was considerable concern voiced. The need for and the establishment of training standards, how to accommodate all of the required training, and the cost to deliver training were highlighted by all of the participants as factors that need to be addressed by police services.

Instructor qualifications. The fourth theme that I identified was instructor qualifications. Within that theme I identified a number of factors which the participants had spoken about, those being the qualifications of the instructors within the academy, the loss of instructors going back to field duties, and the ongoing professional development of instructional staff. All participants spoke of these concerns with seven out of the eight participants voicing a significant number of the same ones (Chart D).

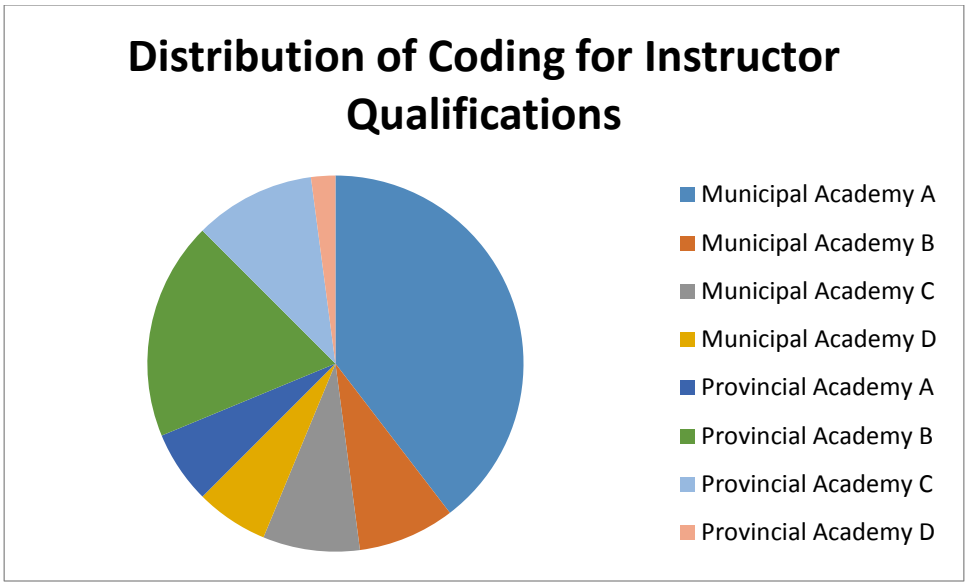

Chart D. Distribution of coding for instructor qualifications.

Many of the comments concerning the qualifications of the instructors going into the training academy identified the fact that they did so because they were excellent police officers. The issue identified by the participants is that being an excellent police officer does not necessarily mean that individual will be a great instructor. In the case of one academy, all newly appointed police officer instructors were required to complete the certificate in adult education provided by the local college. This meant a significant investment in time and effort developing that persons abilities to instruct. As described by another participant, efforts to enhance the level of instruction is not always a smooth transition

> *When I first got there I had no idea what a curriculum designer did and I didn't respect them as professionals. The curriculum designers were getting in the way of us telling all the wonderful stories we had. It was an education process of bringing the two groups together and saying yes you are excellent police officers and you represent all the good things we want in our officers, but it doesn't mean you're going to be a good teacher.*

The development of instructional staff not only involves considerable time and resources, it impacted the second area of concern. Just when the officer was becoming an effective instructor, it was time for them to return to field duties. As voiced by one participant, that situation has a considerable impact

> *I think this is very common for most police agencies. We just had a wholesale change including myself. The unfortunate loss of corporate memory, it was just devastating and that's a bit of a challenge.*

A second participant reinforced this concern

> *So teaching the recruits has historically been an in-service officer. The unfortunate thing is that I get them for two or three years, they are just getting to be a good instructor and then they're walking out the door.*

The third factor identified by the participants was the ongoing professional development of instructors. Due to the turnover of instructional staff, the efforts to develop them is extremely challenging. The need to train police officers to be good instructors is a strain on operational budgets and as one participant identified, the financial burden is not sustainable

> *What I am sad about more than anything else is that we really don't have the money to properly develop the instructors the way that we should.*

Principles of adult learning. The last theme that I identified through the coding of the participant interviews was the principles of adult learning. Six out of the eight participants spoke

extensively about their thoughts regarding the principles of adult learning (Chart E).

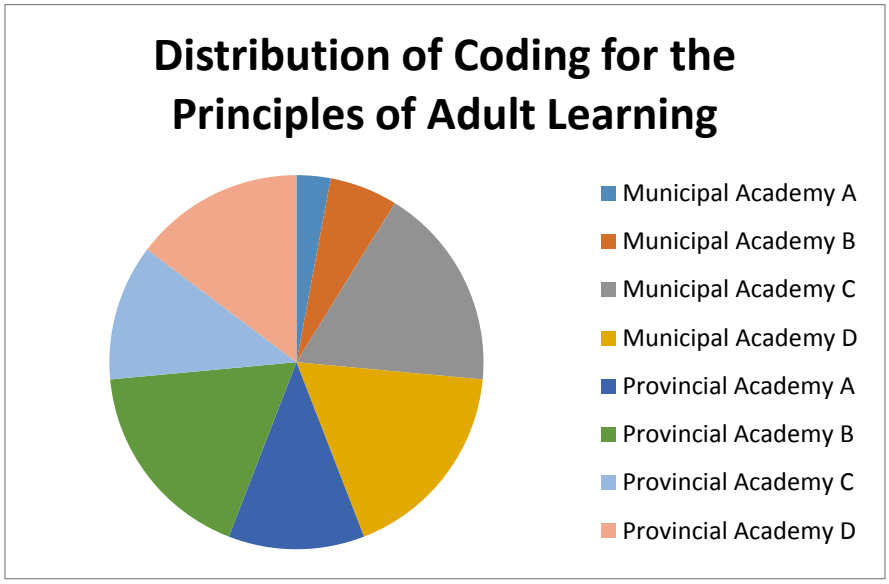

Chart E. Distribution of coding for principles of adult learning.

In almost every case there was a clear recognition and endorsement of the six principles of adult learning. The only principle where there did seem to be some confusion was the principle of readiness to learn. For example, one participant described this as the sole responsibility of the learner

> *Being in a police environment is a career that people have chosen and they should come in knowing that it is a high demand career. My opinion is that the onus on this one is on the student, they need to come ready to learn. It is important for an instructor to be able to recognize their willingness and readiness, but if they are not ready to learn at that point, ultimately they get dismissed.*

What some of the participants did speak about was the role that the design of the training program had on a learner's readiness to learn. Was the learning experience a lecture power-point presentation that did not engage the learner, or was it a problem based learning situation where

the learner had a great deal of control over how the learning was taking place? One participant was able to explain how the instructor could support a learner's readiness to learn

> *The instructor needs to be able to do things on the fly. They need to recognize when someone is shutting down and say O.K., this is not working. We'll try something else, and if that doesn't work, we'll try something else. It's the instructor's job to be able to change gears.*

Word Count Frequency

I used the word count frequency query of NVivo™ to conduct a word count frequency of the textual data from key informants from municipal academies and those from provincial academies. The frequency was determined by 100 of the most frequent words of five letters or more used by the key informants. Non-essential words were deleted from the word count. The word count frequencies are presented as two word cloud figures. Figure 1 presents the word count frequency of key informant texts from municipal academies. Figure 2 presents the word count frequency of key informant texts from provincial academies. The font size of words is relative to their frequency in the texts.

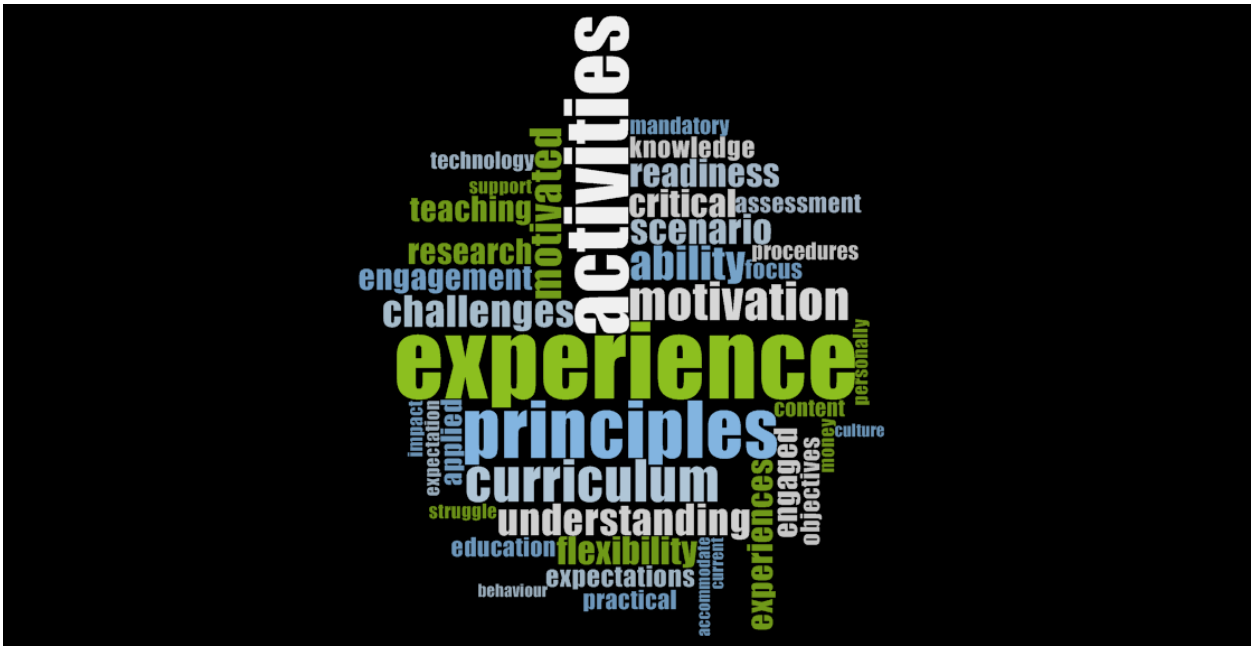

Figure 1. Word count frequency of key informant texts from municipal academies

Figure 2. Word count frequency of key informant texts from provincial academies

An analysis of the two figures reveals some interesting observations. Clearly, both groups of administrators spoke extensively about experience. The experience of the recruits as they progressed through the training program and how that experience impacted the acquisition

of knowledge and skills. The emerging themes identified from the analysis of the interviews supports the importance of experience. The social context, the next generation of recruits, the model of training delivery, and the experience of the instructional staff all have an enormous impact on the learning experience during training.

An examination of the next grouping of words most commonly used, revealed an interesting difference between the participants from the municipal and provincial academies. For administrators from the municipal academies, words of prevalence included: activities, principles, motivation, challenges, curriculum, and understanding. The majority of these words reflect a student-centered focus. For administrators from provincial academies, the words of prevalence included: activities, scenario, commitment, assessment, and knowledge. Although somewhat similar, this group of words appears to have a more teacher-centered, or process driven in focus. This difference is consistent with the results identified from the instructor surveys.

This observation remains consistent when I examined the next grouping of word usage. For participants from the municipal academies, the prevalent words consisted of: ability, engagement, flexibility, scenario, and readiness. The next grouping of word prevalence used by participants from provincial academies included: challenges, education, motivation, readiness, and competencies. It appears that the word grouping for the municipal academy participants is more learner-centered than process-focused, while the word grouping for the provincial participants is slightly more process-focused.

When I examined the twelve most commonly used words by participants from both the provincial and municipal academies and then eliminated the words that were common to both

groups of participants, I identified the following commonly used words that were unique to each group of participants:

Word commonly used by informants from municipal academies	**Words commonly used by informants from provincial academies**
Principles, curriculum, understanding, engagement, and flexibility	Knowledge, assessment, commitment, competencies, and education

Again, the words used by municipal participants appear to have a greater emphasis on the individual while the words used by the provincial participants are more teacher-centered or process driven.

Conclusions from Key Informant Interviews

From the interviews with the eight participants, I have been able to identify five themes: social context, model of training delivery, contributing institutional factors, instructor qualifications, and the principles of adult learning.

Based on the number of references each participant made with respect to the five themes, I have determined that the theme which is of greatest concern to the participants is social context. In other words, the increased public accountability, the influence of technology, and the personal qualities of individuals training to become police officers, is having a significant impact on the manner in which the training of police officers is taking place.

The second theme, or area of concern to the participants, was the model of training utilized within their training academies. All participants were in agreement that the traditional methods of training such as lecture, power-point presentations, and the memorization of factual information was not going to adequately prepare individuals to become police officers. All

indicated that their training programs do need to include aspects of experiential learning that provides learners with the opportunity to acquire and demonstrate needed skills in a realistic environment. There was not an agreement regarding one unique training model that would meet the needs of all police agencies.

The third theme identified was contributing institutional factors which consisted of the establishment of training standards, the amount of training, and the financial concerns regarding the cost to train police officers. Participants identified that fact that police officers are trained to different standards; not only across Canada, but within each province. They also voiced concern regarding the ever increasing amount of training that a police officer needs and the defined time period within which that training must take place. Making that situation even more complicated is the high cost associated to the training of police officers. With budget constraints, administrators scrutinize training budgets and this in turn places extreme pressure on the training academies to get the required training completed.

The fourth theme I identified through the coding of the participant interviews was instructor qualifications and the need for professional development. In order to become effective instructors, police officers who join the academy take specialized training. This process has a cost to it. After two or three years within the academy, that police officer has become proficient in the role of facilitating learning, however, shortly thereafter they get transferred out of the academy.

The last theme to emerge from the participant interviews was the application of adult learning principles. There was consistent agreement from the participants regarding the need to understand and apply the six principles as identified by Knowles. In general there was a good

understanding of the principles although there was some incongruence regarding the principle of readiness to learn.

The final analysis of the interview data was a comparison of the most commonly used words by the participants from the municipal academies versus the words most commonly used by participants from the provincial academies. This analysis revealed a trend that was consistent with a trend that I identified in the analysis of the instructor surveys. It would appear that both the instructors and the administrators from municipal police academies are somewhat more learner-centered in their approach to training than are the instructors and administrators from the provincial academies. Although this study has not delved into the root cause of this observation, based on my experience with police officer training, one may infer that provincial academies have tighter, process driven policies while municipal academies are able to be more flexible.

Summary of Findings

The most notable finding from the instructor surveys were that instructors from municipal police training academies used a learner-centered teaching style. According to Conti (2004), learner-centered teaching styles are closely aligned with the principles of adult learning. The results of the word count frequency of key informants from municipal and provincial academies add further evidence to support this finding. Chapter Five extends the discussion of the research findings.

Chapter Five Discussions

The purpose of this study was to examine the instructional practices of contemporary police officer training with respect to Knowles' six principles of adult learning. Specifically the two central research questions were:

To what extent do police service instructors currently understand and use instructional approaches that align with these principles?

To what extent do academy policies and procedures align themselves with these principles?

Professional Experience of the Researcher

Throughout chapter five I have expressed a number of opinions and made interpretations of the findings from this research as it applies to police officer training. I express these opinions and interpretations based on my twenty-three years of operational duties with the Royal Canadian Mounted Police, my experience as an administrator of a police training academy and my experience as a classroom instructor. This experience includes personal involvement in the development of the recruit training program for the Brandon Police Service. The development of this curriculum included the incorporation of Problem Based Learning as the delivery model. I have been the instructor for the program and over the past nine years I have been the administrator.

Added to this experience has been my involvement with police officer training on a national and international level. During the past nine years I have been a member of the Canadian Association of Police Educators (CAPE), and have been national president for the past three years. I have been a board member of the Police Society for Problem Based Learning (PSPBL) since 2011, and was appointed to the board of directors for the Ontario Police Video

Training Alliance (OPVTA) in March of 2015. In 2012 I participated as an academy administrator in the development of the police officer competency framework spearheaded by the Police Sector Council. As part of that process, I have conducted an evaluation of the cadet training program delivered by Assiniboine Community College and the Brandon Police Service.

As an administrator within Assiniboine Community College, I have led the change in educational philosophy from one of teaching to one of learning. During the past six years, in excess of forty instructors from three separate schools within the college have taken the training and have been certified as problem-based learning instructors.

Instructor Application of Adult Learning Principles

In order to address my first research question I engaged 48 instructors from nine different police training academies located throughout Canada. These instructors completed the Principles of Adult Learning Scale (PALS) survey as developed by Conti (2004).

Once each respondent completed the survey, I scored them based on the scoring key also developed by Conti (2004). The data gathered through the PALS survey revealed that the majority of respondents engaged in classroom activities that were teacher-centered (89.6%), and of those respondents, a significant number (20), had PALS scores that indicated they engaged in activities that were *strongly* teacher-centered. In addition, there were no respondent scores that were in the *strongly* learner-centered range.

The seven factors of teaching style. The results of the survey were disaggregated into seven factors of teaching style that indicated whether the respondents' teaching style was teacher-centered or learner-centered. These seven factors of teaching style were: learner-centered activities, personalized instruction, relating to experience, assessing student needs,

climate building, participation in the learning process, and flexibility for personal development (Conti, 2004).

The data collected through the PALS survey revealed mixed results regarding instructor application of the seven factors. For the three factors: learner-centered activities, recognition of learners' previous experience, and climate building, respondent scores showed that they engaged in a mixture of learner-centered teaching style or teacher-centered teaching style. There was a slightly higher response rate for learner-centered teaching style.

For the other four factors: personalized instruction, assessing student needs, participation in the learning process, and flexibility for personal development, the results indicated that for these factors the teaching style was predominantly teacher-centered. In fact, a significant percentage of respondent scores for all four factors were *strongly* teacher-centered teaching style. These results suggest that some police training activities are not in alignment with the principles of adult learning.

Findings from this research also showed differences between instructors from the municipal academies and instructors from provincial training academies. For all seven factors of teaching style, the data showed that respondents from municipal training academies were consistently more learner-centered than respondents from provincial academies. The data also showed that not only were respondents from provincial academies more teacher-centered, they were also more likely to be *strongly* teacher-centered.

Overall, these results from the instructor surveys indicate that the respondents were predominantly engaged in teacher-centered teaching activities, particularly for personalized instruction, assessing student needs, participation in the learning process, and flexibility for personal development. In contrast, evidence that came from the review of the literature supports

the position that enhanced learning would result if respondents were to engage in classroom activities that were more learner-centered.

For example, Birzer (2003) cited Ortmeier's argument that "a militaristic and behavioural environment in policing may indeed be effective when teaching technical and procedural skills but does little to promote the acquisition of essential non-technical competencies such as problem solving, judgement, and leadership" (2003, p. 31). Werth (2011) provided further support when he noted

> Instead of the traditional method of instruction dominated by lecture and presentations, what is needed to train officers for work in today's police force is an approach which develops skills such as self-directed learning, problem-solving, decision-making, critical thinking and personal communication. (p 325)

In this researchers opinion, as the depth and breadth of training continues to expand, the ability to increase learner engagement through the adoption of adult learning principles becomes ever more important.

Alignment of Academy Policies with Adult Learning Principles

In order to gather data concerning the policies and procedures of police training academies, I interviewed eight key informants who were administrators from academies across Canada. I asked each participant the same set of questions (Appendix D), aimed at identifying participant beliefs regarding adult learning principles in relation to the training of police officers.

This research revealed that most of the participants understood and supported the utilization of Knowles' six principles of adult learning within their training programs. For example, all participants agreed that the previous experiences of new recruits must be recognized, built upon, and in some cases mined for their value to others in the class. Mayen

(2011) makes this point quite clear in his support of past experience and its' influence on future performance

> Adults have experience. This is the source of related conceptions that have many practical consequences; this experience has a certain value; it must be expressed and re-appropriated; it must be acknowledged. Training and teaching content must take this experience into account, first to harness this possible resource, and second to analyze and overcome obstacles to new learning. (pp. 161-162)

All participants voiced a strong understanding and support for the principle of motivation to learn. Many talked about the need for cadets to possess a strong intrinsic motivation to learn but they also recognized that both the program of delivery and the instructor play a significant role in creating the partnership. Leonard (2002) supported this view when he noted "Adults are highly motivated to learn in a positive adult learning environment. They become fearful when placed in a pedagogic learning environment where the teacher seeks to be an authority figure, rather than a facilitator of knowledge" (p. 7). By having a strong understanding of what motivates people, especially when they are going through difficult times, both the learning activities and the instructor can have a positive influence.

Like motivation to learn, the participants were in complete agreement that a recruits' need to know is extremely important. From a very pragmatic perspective, the acquisition of a particular skill may have direct bearing on a life or death situation once that recruit is out on the streets working. Some participants also identified that a recruits' need to know has an impact on motivation to learn and by recognizing that fact, instructors can have a direct impact on a learners' motivation to learn.

The fourth principle, orientation to learning, was another area where the academy administrators voiced a strong commitment to the partnership between the learner and the training program. Training programs and instructors have the ability to emphasize the importance of becoming a life-long learner. New trends within the broad scope of policing, promotion, or the desire to branch out into a specialized investigative unit, demand that police officers continue to learn. Participants identified the role that the training program and the instructors play in creating an environment that promotes learning. By creating learning activities that are real life, engaging, and responsive to the way in which each recruit prefers to learn, the recruit training program can either develop that orientation or destroy it.

Findings from this research indicated that there may be a lack of understanding about the adult learning principle, readiness to learn. Some participants voiced the opinion that when individuals apply to become police officers and proceed through a training process, they should be ready to learn about policing when they arrive at the training academy. Readiness to learn also implies an appreciation of an adult learner's individual factors such as a learning disability or family crisis that hinders learning. One underlying message that emerged from the key informant interviews was that recruits needed to figure out their individual problems and if they are not ready to learn, they should not be in police officer training.

The affective environment within a classroom has an enormous influence on a students' readiness to learn and it is the instructor who controls that environment. In order to optimize learning, the instructor must first of all understand the influence they exert, and secondly, be able to accommodate learning. Rogers (1980) emphasized this when he wrote "The facilitator also helps to de-emphasize static or content goals, and thus encourages a focus on the process, on *experiencing* the way in which learning takes place" (p. 302).

Finally, self-concept is another principle that participants appeared to lack a full appreciation of. If every one of the new recruits coming into training were self-confident, physically fit, academically strong, and outgoing, then that recruit may receive positive feedback and therefore a belief that they are in control of their learning. But that is often not the case. If the recruit is from a visible minority, has a learning disability, or has grown up in an environment where their own self-worth has been in question, they may feel a strong need to conform, fit it, or change who they are. Again, this individual may be bringing very valuable skills and abilities to the police service, but if their specific situation is not identified and understood, then their training experience may not be a positive one.

Emerging Themes

During the key informant interviews I asked questions regarding the understanding and application of adult learning principles within their training programs. I also asked them questions regarding the challenges facing police officer training. My analysis of the data gathered from these interviews identified four significant themes over and above the application of adult learning principles. These themes were:

1. Social context
2. Model of training delivery
3. Contributing institutional factors
4. Instructor qualifications

Social context. The data gathered during the interviews provided significant information regarding the impact that social context exerts upon police officer training. The three components of social context specifically identified by the participants were public accountability, the influence of technology, and the personal qualities of newly engaged recruits.

The demographics and expectations of Canadian society are changing at an ever increasing rate, and that has placed increased demands on police services. Coupled with increased scrutiny by both individuals and special interest groups, officer conduct has become the subject of public inquiries and increased government oversight. These forces have also greatly increased the need for officer training in areas such as mental health, problem solving, and community-based policing. These issues all point to the need for more robust, comprehensive, and effective police officer training program.

In this research, the key informants clearly identified the need to move away from the traditional lecture, power point, and memorization form of training and move to a model of training that will develop critical thinking and problem solving in the application of officer knowledge and skills. They also recognized that police officer training must incorporate the principles of adult learning if these goals are to be met. As identified by Birzer (2003), what administrators recognize and what is actually happening in police academies may not be congruent.

> The police function is to uphold constitutional guarantees on the part of all citizens and to enforce laws impartially. The paradox here readily comes to light: The police work in a democratic society but are trained and learn their jobs in a very paramilitary, punitive, and authoritarian environment" (p. 33).

The second component participants identified was the impact that technology is having upon the policing function. This impact appears in two forms: the new technology that is available to officers and the specialized training that this technology requires; and, the direct impact of technology on the methods of training. Blended learning, online learning and simulation training all require increased expertise in order to deliver that training. These two

aspects increase the amount of training required and the level of expertise needed in order to deliver it.

The third component of social context participants identified was the different personality traits of police applicants today compared to applicants in previous generations. Historically, training was very command and control which meant that recruits did not question instructions. Today, the new recruit is being encouraged to think critically, question the status quo, and problem solve. In order for this philosophy to be effective, the interview participants identified the need to have mature recruits who already possess a great deal of life skills. In some cases police services are engaging new recruits who meet these requirements; however doing so is becoming ever more difficult. All too often the current generation of new recruits appear to be self-centered, needing instant gratification, and unwilling to work hard in order to get ahead.

Model of training delivery. The second emerging theme identified by the participants was the manner in which their training programs delivered the training. More specifically, what types of learning activities were the recruits engaged in, how was learning being assessed, and how were the new methods of training delivery being administered such as blended learning.

With respect to learning activities, the administrators identified many of the same issues identified in the literature. For too long police officer training has relied on lecture, power point, and the ability for a subject matter expert to provide the basic understanding of how to conduct policing activities (Werth, 2011; Birzer, 2003; Cleveland & Saville, 2007). There was further agreement that for effective learning to take place, training must include methods such as problem based learning, scenario training, and experiential learning (Werth, 2011; Cleveland & Saville, 2007).

There was also wide-spread agreement amongst the participants that the traditional forms of assessment such as test writing and quizzes are no longer acceptable. If the expected result of training is the application of skills and knowledge, then that must be the level of assessment. Scenario based and problem based learning allow the instructor to observe recruits in the application of learning and arrive at a higher certainty that new officers will be able to perform their duties out on the streets.

The third concern voiced by participants with respect to the model of training was the effectiveness of new training delivery methods such as computer assisted learning, e-learning, and blended learning. Two specific issues arose: the quality of the learning experience; and knowledge retention. As expressed by more than one of the key informants, too often officers were only able to engage in these types of learning activities during slow periods of their shifts. Those opportunities usually occurred during the middle of a night shift when officers were most tired. If not during a night-shift, the learning sessions would be during busier day-shifts when the likelihood of interruptions was much higher. Participants identified that these situations did not allow for effective learning.

With respect to the retention of knowledge, the participants voiced these concerns. An officer could successfully complete a computer assisted or e-learning activity, meeting all the assessment forms contained within the learning program, but there was little assurance that knowledge retention would be long term. Without the direct application and reinforcement of the newly acquired knowledge, participants felt that the officers could quickly forget the majority of the content. Nikolou-Walker and Meaklin (2007) reinforced the concept of experiential reinforced learning when they wrote

> Classroom learning educates students through books and lectures, selected and presented by 'experts' whose instruction follows rigidly defined methods. Experiential learning on the other hand, occurs in some form of a social environment and promotes student observation, data collection and discovery to drive continual analysis, problem-solving and learning (p. 361).

Contributing institutional factors. The third emerging theme that the majority of interview participants spoke of was the influence of internal organizational factors such as training standards, the amount of training, and the financial cost associated with the delivery of training.

In all provinces across Canada there are multiple agencies that deliver policing services. It has been my experience as a police officer and through the work I have completed at the national level that there is often resistance by one police agency when another service determines the content and method of new training. As a result, police officers working in neighbouring communities may have different training and different police force policy on how officers should respond to various situations. This can become extremely problematic in areas such as the lower mainland of British Columbia and the Greater Toronto Area (GTA). The standardization of police officer training throughout provincial jurisdictions poses significant challenges.

Two important factors inhibit the ability of Canadian police services to adopt a recognized training standard. Firstly, "Canada does not centrally coordinate its policing research and there is no strategic plan for police research across the country" (Griffith, 2014, p. 14). Griffith continues to explain that the second factor is "With a few notable exceptions, Canadian police services have not invested in developing the capability to conduct in-depth evidence-based research and analysis, and it has proven difficult to sustain efforts to build this capability"

(Griffith, 2014, p. 6). So, with no central governing body to provide the framework of training standards, and little capacity for individual police services to conduct evidence-based research, there is no compelling reason for any police service to adopt a specific training standard.

The second identified challenge that police services are facing is the ever increasing amount of training that police officers must participate in. Police officers must engage in the appropriate training that will allow them to respond to increased demands. At the same time, police services are subject to increased public and judicial scrutiny, which by the very nature of scrutiny, tends to identify areas of need. Based on my work with the Police Sector Council, the interviews with police academy administrators, and my work with the Brandon Police Service, I believe that the result of this social context is the increased need for police officer training. Over and above the financial implications, somehow police services must be able to take police officers off the street and re-schedule them into classrooms, while at the same time, maintain the level of service on the street.

Compounding the amount of required training is the length of training. This concern was primarily addressing the length of police officer recruit training. Respondents identified that the initial recruit training phase can take place over a 12 to 26 week time period. With the increasing need to implement more training, when does this increased training take place? For most police services, participants agreed that during the initial recruit training phase is the most efficient (i.e. - officer is already in training and no need to take them out of active duties in order to attend a training session). Again, based on my experience as a police academy administrator and my work with other administrators across Canada, if police recruit training programs do implement a new training model that will incorporate experiential, problem based learning, then the need to increase the length of time for recruit training becomes extremely compelling.

The third factor that respondents identified regarding institutional factors was the cost of training. All identified that the training of police officers is very expensive. In almost all cases, it is the police service that carries this expense. When municipal, provincial, or federal governments determine that police services must hold overall budgets, or worse, reduce budgets, often it is the operational budget applied to training that takes the greatest amount of the burden. When we examine the recruit training program and factor in the increased amount of training that must take place, and the implementation of a training model that requires more time and resources, it becomes clear that police services face a difficult situation. What training does or does not take place?

Instructor qualifications. Under the theme concerning instructor qualifications, participants identified three major concerns: what are the qualifications/expertise of instructional staff when they first begin at the police academy; how is the level of instructional expertise maintained when officers are being transferred back into the field after two or three years; and, what is the professional development of instructors while they are teaching in a training program?

Participants identified that in their police services, officers who became instructors did so due to their excellent performance in the field. In many, if not most cases, these officers had little experience teaching. With limited or no experience as teachers, one must question whether untrained instructors would understand the concept of curriculum and its impact on the learning process. According to Smith (2009), "for trainers to be effective in the police service, they must know themselves; have high levels of emotional intelligence; and show empathy, care, and compassion for their students" (p. 4).

So the question becomes one of whether the untrained instructor would have the level of expertise required to facilitate adult learning and not rely on less effective methods of instruction such as power-point and lecture?

The second issue with respect to instructor qualification that the participants identified was the loss of expertise with the transfer of instructors back into the field. As police services are hierarchical organizations based on a para-military structure, there remains a strong desire for promotion to higher ranks. Time spent within the training academy may provide an officer with valuable experience which may assist in further promotion, however, too much time at the academy may also stall further promotion. This situation has created a culture where time spent at the training academy is usually shorter, not longer.

Finally, participants voiced concern regarding the professional development of police academy instructors. According to the participants, the historical version of professional development involved senior police officer instructors showing new instructors how the training should take place. Of course, if the experienced instructors had a behaviourist teaching style that relied on activities such as lecture and power-point, then the concern was the ability of such training programs to evolve and incorporate more effective forms of training.

The real challenge for training academies and new police instructors is the need to acquire the skills and abilities to facilitate adult learning. According to Werth (2011), "Facilitating an on-going investigation where students are expected to problem solve and fail forward in a self-directed environment while still achieving the objectives of the program takes planning, oversight, and reflection on the part of police educators in order to make the adjustments needed to make such an endeavor successful" (Werth, 2011, p. 336).

Problem-based Learning

This research examined the literature with respect to police officer training and focused on Knowles' adult learning principles as an organizing framework for the data collection and analysis. That said, many police academies in Canada are adopting problem-based learning (PBL) as an instructional model for their program. PBL has relevance to Knowles' adult learning principles as it specifically addresses his six principles. PBL involves group work where the learner must work with others in the solution of a real life, ill-structured problem. The meaning of ill-structured is that there is not one pre-defined solution to the problem. Like all problems in real life, there may be a number of alternate solutions that may or may not be actioned and may address the problem to varying degrees dependant on time and resources.

Learners engage PBL with the introduction of the real life ill-structured problem that they must resolve. The design of the problem presented to the learner reflects a real life situation, and thus it automatically addresses the learners *need to know*. Learners generate ideas, identify the known facts associated to the problem, and determine what further information/knowledge they will need to discover in order to create an action plan. This provides the learner control over learning activities (*self-concept)* and allows them to bring their own *life experiences* into play. In addition, engagement in the problem solving process intrinsically involves the *readiness to learn* and the learners' individual *orientation to learning.* Finally, solving the problem becomes the learners' *motivation to learn.*

In addition to its' alignment with Knowles' six principles, PBL specifically addresses the development of critical thinking, interpersonal communication, and problem solving skills. Traditional behavioural-based learning based on lectures and power point presentations do not allow the learner to develop these higher order cognitive skills. As long as they study the

presented material and are able to reproduce it in some form of written examination, the learner is deemed to have acquired knowledge.

As part of the learning issues process within PBL, learners discover information that not only addresses initial unknowns, but may also uncover further unknowns. These additional learning issues deepens the learners understanding of the problem and encourages them to critically think about their alternate courses of action. As a result, the learner progresses beyond the acquisition of knowledge and becomes versed at applying that knowledge into an action plan. Finally, PBL requires that the learner conduct an evaluation of their action plan. They must assess whether their plan addresses the problem, is a viable course of action, and the resources/authority to initiate the course of action exists.

Conclusions

Policing in Canada and the entire concept of public safety has never felt more pressure that it currently is. In January of 2013, participants at the Economics of Policing Summit hosted by Public Safety Canada repeatedly heard that the cost of police services within Canada was skyrocketing and was unsustainable (personal experience). In 2014 the Council of Canadian Academies published a report titled, Policing Canada in the 21st Century: New Policing for New Challenges. In that report, the expert panel reported

> The current structure of Canadian police organizations need to fully adapt to the changing context in which police now work and to better reflect the rapidly evolving knowledge base on policing. Successful adaptation and knowledge application would help alleviate many of the challenges now facing police (p. xi).

The report continued to say

> Although police have begun to adapt to the evolving context, more change is needed if they are to overcome their many organizational and operational challenges, including the rising costs of policing (p. xi).

Police services across Canada provide competent, professional and comprehensive service that keeps our communities safe and is widely viewed as second to none worldwide. What is central to the opinions expressed above and the purpose for this research is to examine how to optimize the training of new police officers so that they may continue to provide world class public safety. Police services may not be well positioned in order to provide the degree of training that will maintain that high level of service. Training is expensive and as with other professions, is becoming more and more complicated. Public expectations are rising, demands on police services are increasing, and police administrators need to curtail spending. Police training programs are inflexible and not well suited to accommodate the ever changing priorities. We are taking highly skilled police officers off the street and placing them into classrooms where their expertise as police officers is not questionable, but their ability to understand and apply the principles of adult learning may be. And these dynamics are not going away. Technology will continue to change at an ever faster pace, our communities will become more and more diverse, and the recruitment and training of the next generation of police officers will become even more challenging.

The results of this research indicate that at the academy administration level there is a strong desire to see more advanced learning through the incorporation of the principles of adult learning. Although the results from the instructor survey are somewhat mixed, it would appear that a comprehensive understanding of adult learning principles may not fully exist. But again, the question must be asked, is this the best usage of our time, expertise, and financial resources?

If the training of police officers within Canada is to undergo such a fundamental change, it will take an enormous effort on the part of the Chiefs of Police, all levels of government, and a significant change in the police culture. This will not be an easy process, but then again, a forced reduction to police operating budgets is not easy either, yet this has been the reality for some police administrators. Doctors, lawyers, plumbers, accountants all must acquire a significant amount of their job knowledge prior to participating in their career of choice. One must wonder why policing is one of the last careers where the employer bears the vast majority of that cost.

Limitations

There are a number of factors that may limit the application of this research and my findings with respect to the recommendations I have made. With respect to the instructor survey, I have utilized the survey instrument developed by Conti (2004) and presented by Galbraith (2004). I have not presented alternate survey instruments or made any evaluation as to whether the Conti instrument is the most accurate tool to assess police officer instructor knowledge of adult learning principles.

In addition, the key informants that I have interviewed are from police training academies located in various provinces throughout Canada. I have not made any evaluation as to whether the data provided by these individuals is truly representative of all training academies located in every jurisdiction throughout the country. Furthermore, I have not made any determination regarding the expertise of my key informants with respect to their full knowledge of adult learning principles.

Finally, the data gathered through the key informant interviews is qualitative data and therefore I cannot draw broad based generalizations. The data gathered is the expressed opinions of each participant and as such, may be open to more than one interpretation. As a result, the

reader of that data forms their own opinion as to the meaning of each statement and therefore may vary from reader to reader.

Recommendations

One may wonder how research into the understanding and application of adult learning principles can transform into a set of recommendations that changes the entire way that police officer training takes place. The answer lies in context and constraints. This research has identified the fact that the context within which police officer training takes place greatly impacts the ability to apply a more advanced methodology around police officer training. If the desired outcome of police officer recruit training is strictly to provide the knowledge base and operational skills that the officer will require in order to perform his or her duties, then a teacher-centered style will accomplish this. According to the literature, in a teacher-centered environment, learners are passive and if the teacher has created the environment that stimulates the desired behaviour then that should result in the desired outcomes. Conversely, in a learner-entered environment, the focus is on the individual learner and learning activities are not as focused on the body of information as they are on the acquisition of skills such as critical thinking, problem-solving and interpersonal skills.

Based on my experience working with the Police Sector Council on the police officer competency framework, my experience administering a police cadet training program, and this research, which has highlighted the context and constraints that drive the need for enhanced police officer training, I put forth the following recommendations:

- police academies establish a new model of police officer training;
- police services examine the merits of pre-employment training;
- police services establish stronger partnerships with post-secondary institutions; and

- all levels of government provide supports to police services that will allow them to make change.

A new model of police training. The value of the data gathered from the 48 survey participants and the interviews with the key informants is to provide a deeper understanding of the learning environment that exists today. Is the focus of training placed upon the acquisition of the body of police knowledge as it exists, or is the focus on developing the individual learner so that they may enhance their abilities to think critically, problem solve, and effectively work with others? If it is the latter, then the emerging trends identified in this research will continue to place ever greater demands on the current model of police officer training.

This research has provided evidence that there is still too much emphasis on behavioural-based, teacher-centered training taking place in police academies. The research by Werth (2011, p. 326) concluded that

> Innovative police training such as Problem-based Learning and other adult learning techniques are distinctly different than traditional instructor-centric and behavioural educational ideology. Shifting training philosophy, however, holds the potential to help officers develop policing specific skills as well as important competencies such as problem-solving and self-direction in learning. (Birzer, 2003; Birzer & Tannehill, 2001)

The evidence gathered through the interviews revealed that the administrators of police academies are quite aware of the merits of adult learning principles and the incorporation of these principles into police officer training. What also appears evident is that the instructors are not applying adult learning principles and that may in part be a result of a reliance on the traditional training methodologies. If police officer training is to increase the focus on student acquisition of skills such as critical thinking, problem solving, and interpersonal communication,

then the model of training should include increased emphasis on adult learning principles through delivery models such as problem-based learning or other forms of experiential learning.

Pre-employment training. The five themes identified within this research have highlighted a number of compelling reasons why all levels of government should move to a pre-employment model of training for new police officers. The core competencies required of a police officer today are far more expansive than previously needed and these competencies require both training and education. Police services have long done an amazing job of training, but few are well equipped to deliver and facilitate the education of tomorrow's police officer. Efforts to include training that aligns with the principles of adult learning look to incorporate experiential learning, scenarios, and problem based learning methodologies, all of which take greater time than the traditional training methods utilized by police services. In spite of compelling arguments to support the incorporation of adult learning principles, there also appears to be significant resistance to do so. This resistance comes from the constraints of time and money rather than a lack of desire. That said, the expertise in the implementation of adult learning principles lies with educators, not police services.

The basic training of new police officers prior to their engagement by police services certainly does not equate to reduced involvement by police services. Police services are still the end user of the education process and it is the police services that will determine their training needs. That only occurs with an effective partnership between the police service and the post-secondary educators.

The effective education of new police officers is the ultimate driver of this suggested change, however there are a number of other compelling reasons why this change has value. If police services were to adopt a pre-employment model of training, that would reduce the overall

cost of providing policing services to communities. Without the cost of recruit training, police services would be able to reduce the number of officers involved in training and re-deploy them to operational duties. With a pre-employment model of recruit training, there could be changes to the duration of the training program without direct cost to the police service. A pre-employment model of training would facilitate the incorporation of an experiential learning model such as problem based learning. This would allow for increased opportunities for the training program to move learners from the memorization of factual information and writing final exams, into an environment where they are demonstrating their understanding and application of knowledge in real life scenarios. In turn, this would promote the acquisition of skills such as critical thinking and problem solving.

Another positive aspect of the pre-employment model is the opportunity to evaluate an applicant over an extended period of time prior to employment. Many police services have conducted extremely expensive background and security checks, administered polygraph exams, done in-person interviews, accepted the applicant, trained the applicant and then expended considerably more resources trying to dismiss a poor performer after employment. Although pre-employment may not be the panacea to this scenario, the ability to observe a prospective employee over a one or two year period certainly affords an employer a much better opportunity to evaluate the character of the applicant prior to engaging them.

Partnerships: police services and post-secondary. The third recommendation would be for the formal partnership between all police services and a partner post-secondary education facility. The obvious rationale for such a relationship is the expertise which both sides of the partnership would be able to provide. Police services know their business and from use of force, to criminal investigations, to cybercrime, and community based policing, police personnel have a

high degree of expertise. The other side of the equation is education. Post-secondary institutions have a high degree of expertise in identifying competencies, establishing the learning activities that best meet the competency, providing the appropriate resources, providing instructors who can facilitate learning, and then providing the appropriate form of assessment to ensure that the learning outcome has been attained.

In some areas of Canada the partnership between police services and post-secondary institutions is already a reality. In British Columbia, Manitoba, Quebec, the Atlantic provinces, and in Newfoundland, police services have already entered into formal partnerships with post-secondary institutions. In these areas of Canada, the police services do not bear the full burden of new employee training and education. In some areas, police services have fully implemented a pre-employment model of training.

> This concept is not unique to Canada. Karp and Stenmark (2011) stated that
>
> According to Andersson (2007), one of the basic ideas behind the new training program was to better prepare police students for their profession through increased subject integration and problem-oriented learning. In January 2006, the Swedish government decided to set up a committee to be entrusted with the task of studying how the basic police training program could partly or wholly be transformed into a university education. (p. 4)

In England, Cordner and Shain (2011) commented that "as a massive national review of the structure and operation of policing in England, recommendations have been made to shift much of the responsibility for police training from the police service itself over to colleges and universities (Neyroud, 2011)" (Karp & Stenmark, 2011, p. 281).

The concept of formal partnerships between police services and post-secondary institutions is also highly meritorious based on professional development. Such partnerships would allow police services to promote continuous lifelong learning for its employees. Instead of promoting an individual into a level of supervision or management and then sending that individual for the appropriate training, police services will be able to identify courses that individuals seeking promotion should have. The successful completion of these courses could then form part of the promotion criteria and newly promoted officers would be in a better position to assume their new duties upon promotion.

A third benefit to police services should they enter into a formal partnership with a post-secondary institution is the additional recruiting resources available. All post-secondary institutions have significant resources and expertise at recruiting and guiding young people into various careers. This is especially crucial for police services as most of them target individuals who are in their mid-twenties, are mature, and have gained a reasonable amount of life experience. Many young people leave high-school with the desire to become police officers, but lack the clear avenue of how to accomplish that goal. Go to university, go to college, or work for several years? Many exclude themselves from employability because of bad decisions made during this post high-school time period. By engaging post-secondary institutions in the training process, a more defined avenue towards a career in policing may be possible.

In addition, by forging a partnership with a post-secondary institution, police services gain access not only to the ability of colleges to recruit potential employees, but they also gain access to all the other resources of the post-secondary institution. Learning strategists, library and research capabilities, articulation with other post-secondary institutions, and the physical facilities of the post-secondary institution become available. Often police services require a

gymnasium to conduct physical abilities testing, a lecture theatre to host presentations, or just a classroom to conduct meetings or mini-sessions. All of these facilities become available through the post-secondary institution.

Finally, a partnership with a post-secondary institution does not mean that police officers will not be valued or needed in the training process. No one knows the requirements of the job better than a police officer. So while post-secondary institutions have expertise in education, police officers have expertise in what competencies are required and what the acquisition of those competencies looks like. Officers will be involved in the development of training programs and in many cases may be involved in some aspects of the delivery. Post-secondary institutions need to engage instructors for the delivery of programs and in most cases these are individuals from those professions. If a formal partnership exists, colleges may second instructors from the police service, pay the salary dollars for that police officer to the police service, which in turn allows the police service to hire an additional officer. The partnership actually allows the police service to increase personnel without additional dollar expenses. The post-secondary institution gains a valuable instructor with significant industry expertise. In addition, the college will support the development of that instructor with respect to gaining formal training on how to become a better educator.

Problem based learning. As cited by Trovato in his doctoral thesis (2008, p. 30), police training must include a balance of police training and education that emphasizes communication skills, negotiating skills, critical thinking and research skills. Werth (2009), Birzer (2003), and Cleveland & Saville (2007), have all stated similar opinions. Although there are many learning models such as project based, scenario based, and simulation based training, it is my recommendation that police training academies adopt the problem based learning model. The

design of this model engages the learner in a manner that closely aligns with Knowles' principles of adult learning. As the design of problem based learning relies upon the ill-structured problem, there is no given pathway of study. Learners must examine factors that influence a possible course of action, engage in self-directed learning and then determine a best course of action. It has been my experience that no other model of training delivery provides the same opportunity for learners to develop their ability to think critically, problem solve, and work with others.

Government support. Governments currently provide financial support for new employees wanting to enter many of the trades and professions. Apprenticeship programs, financial grants, or the funding of base budget programs within advanced education, are forms of government support that can mitigate the cost of recruit training to police services and provide financial assistance to individuals wanting to become police officers. In addition, government support for pre-employment programs would allow police services to redirect training costs over to the operational areas that reflect their core service. Like health and education, policing is a social service that is highly valued by Canadians. Like health and education, Canadians should be able to rely upon highly trained and skilled police officers that have received the highest levels of both training and education.

In summation, the recommendation of this research is that both police services and all levels of government examine how they provide training for police officers and look to effective partnerships with post-secondary institutions. The higher levels of police officer competence, public expectations, the changing world, and financial reality all compel governments to make those hard decisions that will improve training. The traditional methods are not sustainable nor acceptable.

Further Research

This research opens the door for further inquiry into the manner in which police officers are trained and educated. I have specifically focused on the instructor and the philosophical orientation of program administration with respect to the alignment of training with adult learning principles. Regardless of what administrators believe is taking place and how instructors believe they are instructing, two questions emerged: "What is actually taking place within the classroom or learning centre? and "To what degree are police training programs still relying on lecture, power-point, memorization, and static test taking?"

A second line of inquiry involves the preparation of instructional staff. I have stated that in most cases, instructors within police training academies are current or former police officers who possess extensive expertise with respect to the competencies required to be a police officer. What is unknown is the degree to which police services and their training academies prepare these individuals to become educators. For example, are the new instructors being educated on the principles of adult learning, the facilitation of learning, concepts like Bloom's Taxonomy? As well, what constitutes a valid method of assessment specific to the attainment of a competency? I suggest that these are basic competencies for an educator.

Lastly, the emerging themes that I have identified raise one significant question for further analysis. Is there one *best* model of training that police services across Canada can look to in order to meet their training needs? Interview participants identified the increasing pressure police services are experiencing in order to training their officers. An increased scope of training topics, the impact of technology, financial constraints, higher public expectations and the identified need to evolve from law enforcers to problem solvers, are all exerting increased pressure to become as efficient as possible.

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Appendix A

Letter Requesting Administrators Consent

Officer in Charge:
Address:
Postal Code:
Telephone:

Dear Sir/Madame:

I am the Chairperson of Human Services within the School of Health & Human Services at Assiniboine Community College in Brandon, Manitoba. I am completing a Master of Education degree through Brandon University and as such I am conducting a research project entitled "An Examination of the Model of Instruction for Police Officer Recruit Training". I would like to extend an invitation to instructors within your training academy to participate in this research and in order to do so; I am requesting your written consent.

This study will examine the instructor's knowledge of the principles of adult learning and the methods of in-class curriculum delivery. Questionnaires would be distributed to instructors within your training academy who volunteer to participate. You would be asked to identify instructors willing to participate and then provide the researcher with each instructors email address. These emails will be kept confidential and destroyed afterwards. The survey will be in an electronic format that would then be distributed to each instructor for completion.

In addition, I would like to interview key personnel at the academy regarding your police officer training program and the application of adult learning principles.

Neither the names of your personnel, nor the name of your police service will be used in any published report, nor will any comparisons between police services be undertaken in this study. In addition, no value judgment will be placed on any participant's questionnaire responses. At the conclusion of the study, all data, including any observation notes, will be destroyed.

This study is being conducted under the supervision of Professor Karen Rempel at Brandon University. She may be contacted at (204-727-7331) or at rempelk@brandonu.ca.

Thank you in advance for your consideration.

Wayne Jacobsen – jacobsew@assiniboine.net
Assiniboine Community College
1430 Victoria Ave., E
Brandon, MB R7A 2A9

Appendix B

Principles of Adult Learning Scale

(Taken from Adult Learning Methods, 3rd ed. Editor, Michael W. Galbraith, 2004)

DIRECTIONS

The following survey contains several things that a teacher of adults might do in a classroom. You may personally find some of them desirable and find others undesirable. For each item please respond to the way you most frequently practice the action described in the item. Your choices are 'Always,' 'Almost Always,' 'Often,' Seldom,' 'Almost Never,' and 'Never.' On your answer sheet, circle 0 if you always do the event; circle number 1 if you almost always do the event; circle 2 if you often do the event; circle number 3 if you seldom do the event; circle number 4 if you almost never do the event; and circle number 5 if you never do the event. If the item *does not apply* to you, circle number 5 for never.

1. I allow students to participate in developing the criteria for evaluating their performance in class.	0 1 2 3 4 5
2. I use disciplinary action when it is needed.	0 1 2 3 4 5
3. I allow older students more time to complete assignments when they need it.	0 1 2 3 4 5
4. I encourage students to adopt middle class values.	0 1 2 3 4 5
5. I help students diagnose the gaps between their goals and their present level of performance.	0 1 2 3 4 5
6. I provide knowledge rather than serve as a resource person.	0 1 2 3 4 5
7. I stick to the instructional objectives that I write at the beginning of a program.	0 1 2 3 4 5
8. I participate in the informal counseling of students.	0 1 2 3 4 5
9. I use lecturing as the best method for presenting my subject material to adult students.	0 1 2 3 4 5
10. I arrange the classroom so that it is easy for students to interact.	0 1 2 3 4 5
11. I determine the educational objectives for each of my students.	0 1 2 3 4 5
12. I plan units which differ widely as possible from my students' socio-economic backgrounds.	0 1 2 3 4 5
13. I get a student to motivate himself/herself by confronting him/her in the presence of classmates during group discussions.	0 1 2 3 4 5
14. I plan learning episodes to take into account my students' prior experiences.	0 1 2 3 4 5
15. I allow students to participate in making decisions about the topics that will be covered in class.	0 1 2 3 4 5

16. I use one basic teaching method because I have found that most adults have a similar style of learning.	0 1 2 3 4 5
17. I use different techniques depending on the students being taught.	0 1 2 3 4 5
18. I encourage dialogue among my students.	0 1 2 3 4 5
19. I use written tests to assess the degree of academic growth rather than to indicate new directions for learning.	0 1 2 3 4 5
20. I utilize the many competencies that most adults already possess to achieve educational objectives.	0 1 2 3 4 5
21. I use what history has proven that adults need to learn as my chief criteria for planning learning episodes.	0 1 2 3 4 5
22. I accept errors as a natural part of the learning process.	0 1 2 3 4 5
23. I have individual conferences to help students identify their educational needs.	0 1 2 3 4 5
24. I let each student work at his/her own rate regardless of the amount of time it takes him/her to learn a new concept.	0 1 2 3 4 5
25. I help my students develop short-range as well as long-range objectives.	0 1 2 3 4 5
26. I maintain a well-disciplined classroom to reduce interference to learning.	0 1 2 3 4 5
27. I avoid discussion of controversial subjects that involve value judgments.	0 1 2 3 4 5
28. I allow my students to take periodic breaks during class.	0 1 2 3 4 5
29. I use methods that foster quiet, productive desk work.	0 1 2 3 4 5
30. I use tests as my chief method of evaluating students.	0 1 2 3 4 5
31. I plan activities that will encourage each student's growth from dependence on others to greater independence.	0 1 2 3 4 5
32. I gear my instructional objectives to match the individual abilities and needs of the students.	0 1 2 3 4 5
33. I avoid issues that relate to the student's concept of himself/herself.	0 1 2 3 4 5
34. I encourage my students to ask questions about the nature of their society.	0 1 2 3 4 5
35. I allow a student's motives for participating in continuing education to be a major determinant in the planning of learning objectives.	0 1 2 3 4 5
36. I have my students identify their own problems that need to be solved.	0 1 2 3 4 5
37. I give all my students in my class the same assignment on a given topic.	0 1 2 3 4 5
38. I use materials that were originally designed for students in elementary and secondary schools.	0 1 2 3 4 5
39. I organize adult learning episodes according to the problems that my students encounter in everyday life.	0 1 2 3 4 5

40. I measure a student's long term educational growth by comparing his/her total achievement in class to his/her expected performance as measured by national norms from standardized tests.	0 1 2 3 4 5
41. I encourage competition among my students.	0 1 2 3 4 5
42. I use different materials with different students.	0 1 2 3 4 5
43. I help students relate new learning to their prior experiences.	0 1 2 3 4 5
44. I teach units about problems of everyday living.	0 1 2 3 4 5

SCORING THE PRINCIPLES OF ADULT LEARNING SCALE (PALS)

Positive Items

Items number 1, 3, 5, 8, 10, 14, 15, 17, 18, 20, 22, 23, 24, 25, 28, 31, 32, 34, 35, 36, 39, 42, 43, and 44 are positive items. For positive items, assign the following values: Always=5, Almost Always=4, Often=3, Seldom=2, Almost Never=1, and Never=0.

Negative Items

Items number 2, 4, 6, 7, 9, 11, 12, 13, 16, 19, 21, 26, 27, 29, 30, 33, 37, 38, 40, and 41 are negative items. For negative items, assign the following values: Always=0, Almost Always=1, Often=2, Seldom=3, Almost Never=4, and Never=5.

Missing Items

Omitted items are assigned a neutral value of 2.5.

Factors

Factor 1: Learner-centered Activities

Item #	2	4	11	12	13	16	19	21	29	30	38	40	Total Score
Score													

Factor 2: Personalizing Instruction

Item #	3	9	17	24	32	35	37	41	42	Total Score
Score										

Factor 3: Relating to Experience

Item #	14	31	34	39	43	44	Total Score
Score							

Factor 4: Assessing Student Needs

Item #	5	8	23	25	Total Score
Score					

Factor 5: Climate Building

Item #	18	20	22	28	Total Score
Score					

Factor 6: Participation in the Learning Process

Item #	1	10	15	36	Total Score
Score					

Factor 7: Flexibility for Personal Development

Item #	6	7	26	27	33	Total Score
Score						

Computing Scores

An individual's total score on the instrument is calculated by summing the value of the responses to all items. Factor scores are calculated by summing the value of the responses for each item in the factor.

Factor Score Values

Factor	Mean	Standard Deviation
1	38	8.3
2	31	6.8
3	21	4.9
4	14	3.6
5	16	3.0
6	13	3.5
7	13	3.9

Appendix C

Consent to Participate – Key Informants

You are being asked to participate voluntarily in a study regarding the utilization of the principles of adult learning within your police officer recruit training program.

Your participation in this interview is entirely voluntary and there will be no negative consequences if you refuse to participate in it, withdraw from it, or refuse to answer certain questions. All comments and answers that you provide will not be attributed to your identity and comments will be generalized to prevent identification. With your permission we would like to audio-tape the interview. These interviews will be transcribed and then analyzed. The data from the transcriptions will be stored electronically on a computer in the office of the Principal Investigator, Wayne Jacobsen. The data will be retained for the duration of this project or the completion of related research at which time it will be destroyed.

If you have any questions or concerns please do not hesitate to contact me at (1-800-862-6307 ext. 6216) or by email at: jacobsew@assiniboine.net

Sincerely

Wayne Jacobsen
Chair – Human Services
Assiniboine Community College

I hereby give my consent to participate in an interview with Wayne Jacobsen

Name: _____ Signature: _____

Appendix D

Key Informant Interviews

Questions

1. What do you think the challenges are regarding police officer training for the 21st century?
2. How should police academies address those challenges?

The six principles of adult education as presented by Malcolm Knowles are:

1) ***Need to know*** *– adults require that the instructor provide a rationale for why they need to learn the new information prior to learning it. Otherwise, they lack the motivation for learning, which is key to the adult learning experience;*

2) ***Self-concept*** *– adults have a defined identity that involves being responsible for their own lives, decisions, and actions. They dislike being told what to do, as is often the case in a pedagogic learning environment;*

3) ***Life-experience*** *– adults have gained life experiences from both a qualitative and quantitative perspective and have taken on roles not as yet taken on by children, such as that of spouse, parent, worker, or manager. They bring this knowledge and experience to the learning experience;*

4) ***Readiness to learn*** *– adults are ready to learn when they make a decision that the content to be provided in the learning experience will be helpful for their real-life activities;*

5) – ***Orientation to learning*** *– adults approach learning from a very practical perspective. They seek it to improve their lives and to be more productive. Thus, they*

expect learning to be task-oriented and related to their jobs versus passively obtaining subject-oriented information unrelated to their work;

6) ***Motivation to learn*** *– adults are, for the most part self-motivated to learn. Internal forces are at work that makes them self-motivated, such as better lifestyle, better work environment, better job, and increased self-esteem.*

3. Based upon these descriptions, how important do you feel it is for police officer training programs to understand and apply learning activities that recognizes an adult learners need to know?

4. Based upon these descriptions, how important do you feel it is for police officer training programs to understand and apply learning activities that recognizes an adult learners self-concept?

5. Based upon these descriptions, how important do you feel it is for police officer training programs to understand and apply learning activities that recognizes an adult learner's previous life experience?

6. Based upon these descriptions, how important do you feel it is for police officer training programs to understand and apply learning activities that recognizes an adult learner's readiness to learn?

7. Based upon these descriptions, how important do you feel it is for police officer training programs to understand and apply learning activities that recognizes an adult learner's orientation to learning?

8. Based upon these descriptions, how important do you feel it is for police officer training programs to understand and apply learning activities that recognizes an adult learner's motivation to learn?

Appendix E

Permission Email from DR. M. W. Galbraith

Galbraith, Michael W. [galbraith@marshall.edu]

Actions

To:

M

Wayne Jacobsen

Inbox

September-30-13 11:05 AM

You replied on 30/09/2013 11:54 AM.

Wayne- yes that would be fine to use the scale. I have a 3rd edition that came out in 2004 of the book. The scale should give you a sense of whether or not someone is more student centered or teacher centered. Good luck. M

Michael W. Galbraith, Ed.D.
Professor of Leadership Studies
Marshall University Graduate College
100 Angus E. Peyton Drive
South Charleston, WV 25303-1600
(304) 746-8952
1-800-642-9842 ext. 68952
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galbraith@marshall.edu

Appendix F

Figure One: Overall PALS Results

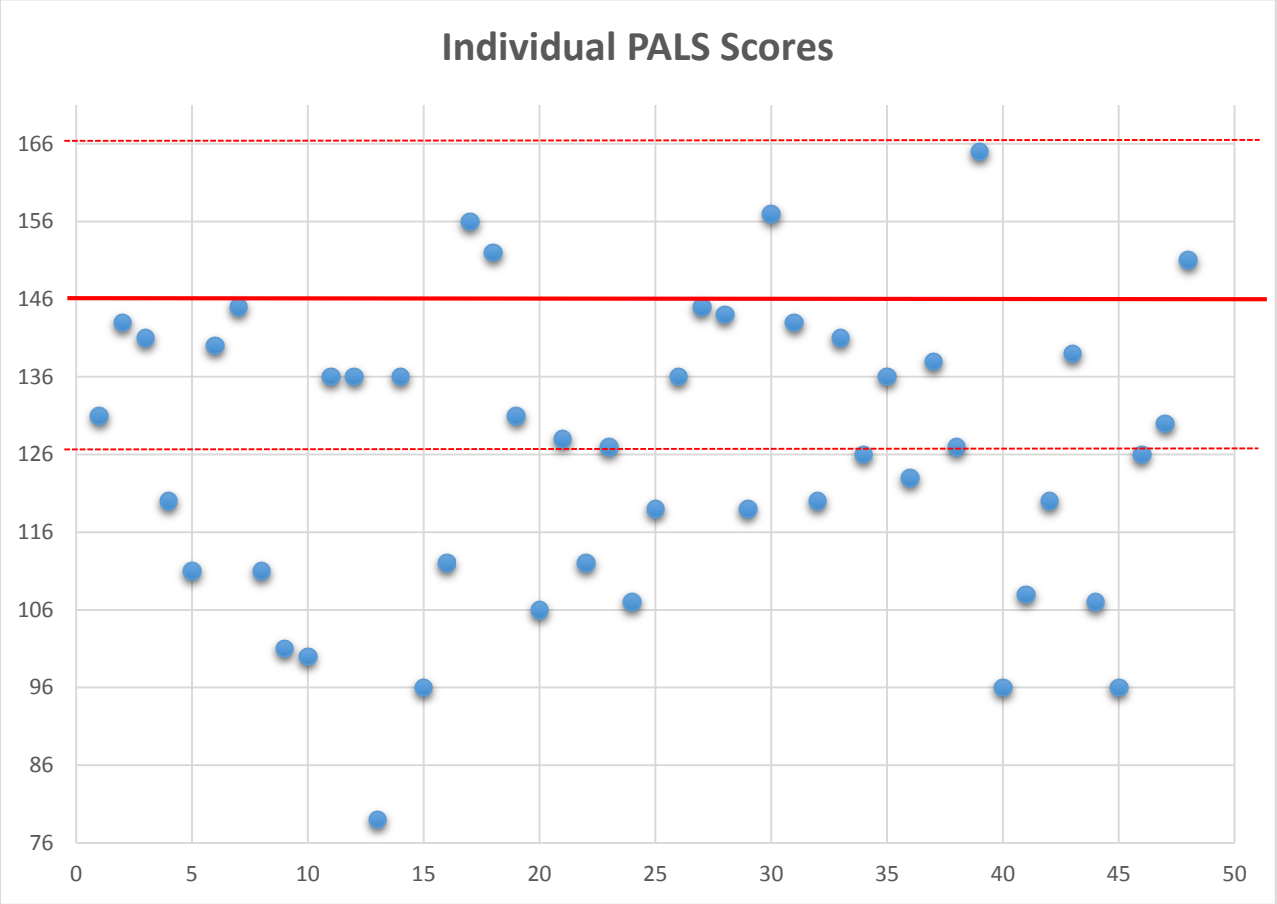

Figure 1 Overall PALS scores for individual instructors

Figure one provides a visual representation of survey results with the x-axis representing the individual instructors (48) and the y-axis representing the overall PALS score for each instructor. Any score above the mean (146) indicates that the instructor believes the learning environment within the police academy to be student-focused and any score below the mean indicating a learning environment that is teacher-focused. If the instructor survey score is more than one standard deviation above the mean (166 or greater), then the instructor believes

the learning environment to be very student-focused. Any instructor survey score more than one standard deviation below the mean (125 or less), is an indication that the instructor believes the learning environment is very teacher-focused. According to Galbraith, the more a learning environment is student-focused, the more it aligns with the principles of adult learning (Galbraith, p. 78). Galbraith also explains that scores within one standard deviation of the mean are indicative of an eclectic learning environment which draws on both learner-centered and teacher-centered philosophy (Galbraith, p. 79).

Appendix G
Survey Results for Each Academy

Table 1. PALS Results by Academy (%)

	Student Focused	Teacher Focused	Within One Standard Deviation	More than one Standard Deviation above mean	More than one Standard Deviation below mean
Provincial Academy A	5.9	94.1	52.9	0	47.1
Provincial Academy B	0	100	50	0	50
Provincial Academy C	0	100	100	0	0
Municipal Academy A	13.3	86.7	60	0	40
Municipal Academy B	12.5	87.5	75	0	25
Municipal Academy C	0	100	0	0	100
Municipal Academy D	0	100	0	0	100
Municipal Academy E	0	100	100	0	0
Municipal Academy F	100	0	100	0	0

Table 2. Percentage of Instructors who Provide Student Focused Learning Activities

	Student Focused	Teacher Focused	Within One Standard Deviation	More than one Standard Deviation above mean	More than one Standard Deviation below mean
Provincial Academy A	52.9	47.1	64.7	23.5	11.8
Provincial Academy B	50	50	100	0	0
Provincial Academy C	0	100	0	0	100
Municipal Academy A	47.7	53.3	86.7	0	13.3
Municipal Academy B	87.5	12.5	75	12.5	12.5
Municipal Academy C	50	50	100	0	0
Municipal Academy D	100	0	100	0	0
Municipal Academy E	100	0	100	0	0
Municipal Academy F	100	0	0	100	0

Table 3. Percentage of Instructors who Believe They can Personalize Instruction

	Student Focused	Teacher Focused	Within One Standard Deviation	More than one Standard Deviation above mean	More than one Standard Deviation below mean
Provincial Academy A	0	100	29.4	0	70.6
Provincial Academy B	0	100	50	0	50
Provincial Academy C	0	100	0	0	100
Municipal Academy A	6.7	93.3	40	0	60
Municipal Academy B	12.5	87.5	37.5	0	62.5
Municipal Academy C	0	100	0	0	100
Municipal Academy D	0	100	0	0	100
Municipal Academy E	100	0	100	0	0
Municipal Academy F	0	100	0	0	100

Table 4. Percentage of Instructors who take into Account the Students Prior Experiences

	Student Focused	**Teacher Focused**	**Within One Standard Deviation**	**More than one Standard Deviation above mean**	**More than one Standard Deviation below mean**
Provincial Academy A	41.2	58.8	70.6	5.9	23.5
Provincial Academy B	0	100	50	0	50
Provincial Academy C	100	0	0	100	0
Municipal Academy A	60	40	60	20	20
Municipal Academy B	62.5	37.5	75	12.5	12.5
Municipal Academy C	0	100	50	0	50
Municipal Academy D	0	100	0	0	100
Municipal Academy E	0	100	0	0	100
Municipal Academy F	100	0	100	0	0

Table 5. Percentage of Instructors who Assess the Individual Student's Needs.

	Student Focused	**Teacher Focused**	**Within One Standard Deviation**	**More than one Standard Deviation above mean**	**More than one Standard Deviation below mean**
Provincial Academy A	11.8	88.2	41.2	5.9	52.9
Provincial Academy B	50	50	50	0	50
Provincial Academy C	100	0	100	0	0
Municipal Academy A	53.3	46.7	66.7	13.3	20
Municipal Academy B	25	75	50	12.5	37.5
Municipal Academy C	0	100	50	0	50
Municipal Academy D	0	100	0	0	100
Municipal Academy E	0	100	100	0	0
Municipal Academy F	0	100	100	0	0

Table 6. Percentage of Instructors who Promote a Climate Building Environment

	Student Focused	**Teacher Focused**	**Within One Standard Deviation**	**More than one Standard Deviation above mean**	**More than one Standard Deviation below mean**
Provincial Academy A	76.5	23.5	82.3	11.8	5.9
Provincial Academy B	100	0	100	0	0
Provincial Academy C	0	100	100	0	0
Municipal Academy A	66.7	33.3	100	0	0
Municipal Academy B	75	25	75	12.5	12.5
Municipal Academy C	0	100	100	0	0
Municipal Academy D	0	100	100	0	0
Municipal Academy E	0	100	100	0	0
Municipal Academy F	100	0	0	100	0

Table 7. Instructors who Allow Students to Participate in the Learning Process

	Student Focused	**Teacher Focused**	**Within One Standard Deviation**	**More than one Standard Deviation above mean**	**More than one Standard Deviation below mean**
Provincial Academy A	11.8	88.2	29.4	5.9	64.7
Provincial Academy B	50	50	50	0	50
Provincial Academy C	0	100	100	0	0
Municipal Academy A	13.3	86.7	60	0	40
Municipal Academy B	50	50	62.5	0	37.5
Municipal Academy C	0	100	50	0	50
Municipal Academy D	0	100	0	0	100
Municipal Academy E	0	100	0	0	100
Municipal Academy F	0	100	0	0	100

Table 8. Instructors who are Flexible Regarding the Development of Individual Students

	Student Focused	**Teacher Focused**	**Within One Standard Deviation**	**More than one Standard Deviation above mean**	**More than one Standard Deviation below mean**
Provincial Academy A	11.8	88.2	52.9	0	41.2
Provincial Academy B	0	100	50	0	50
Provincial Academy C	100	0	100	0	0
Municipal Academy A	33.3	66.7	73.3	0	23.5
Municipal Academy B	37.5	62.5	100	0	0
Municipal Academy C	0	100	100	0	0
Municipal Academy D	0	100	100	0	0
Municipal Academy E	100	0	100	0	0
Municipal Academy F	100	0	100	0	0

Appendix H Figure Two: Factor One

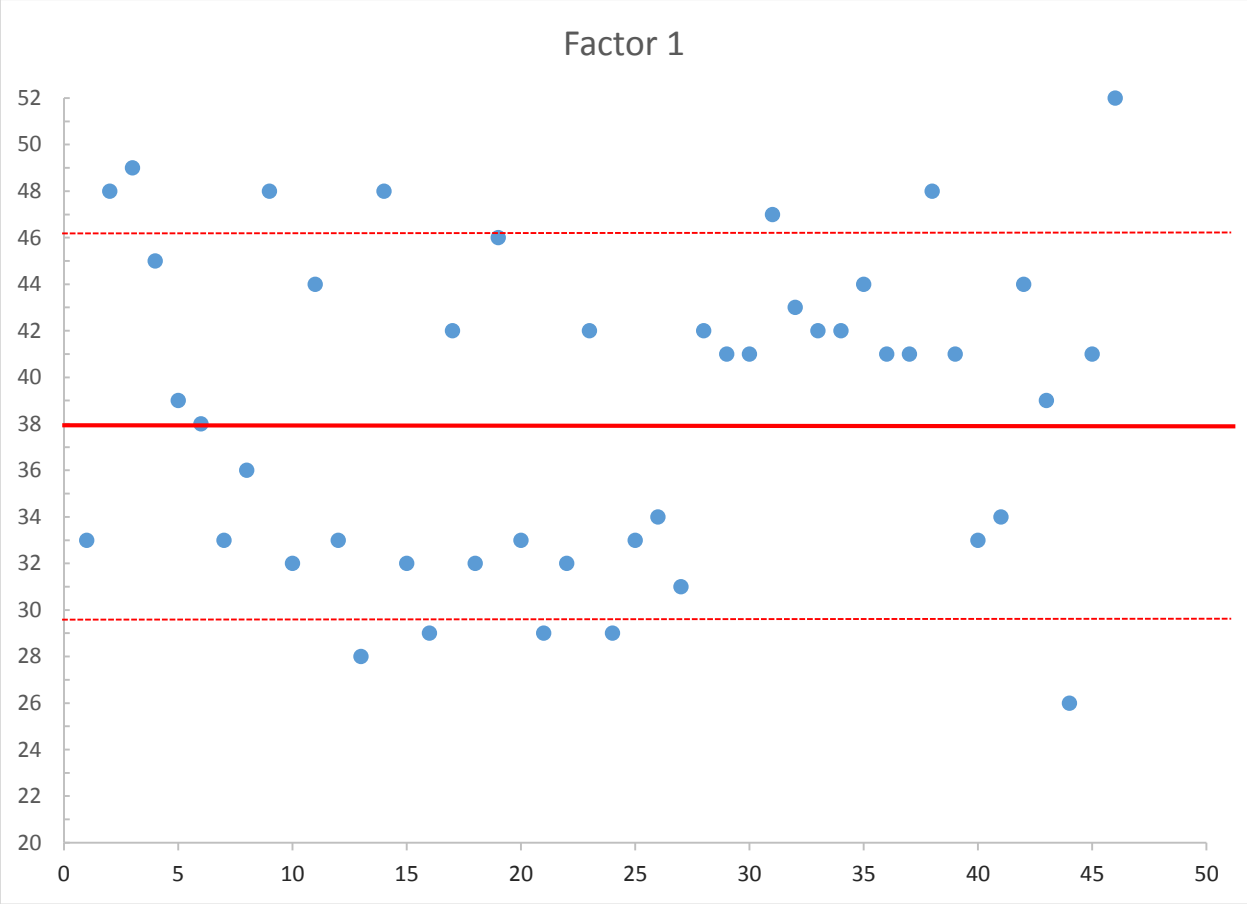

Figure 2 Learner Centred Activities

Overall instructor responses are evenly distributed above and below the mean. Seventy-five percent are within one standard deviation of the mean, 12.5 % are more than one standard deviation above the mean and 12.5 % are more than one standard deviation below the mean.

Appendix I Figure Three: Factor Two

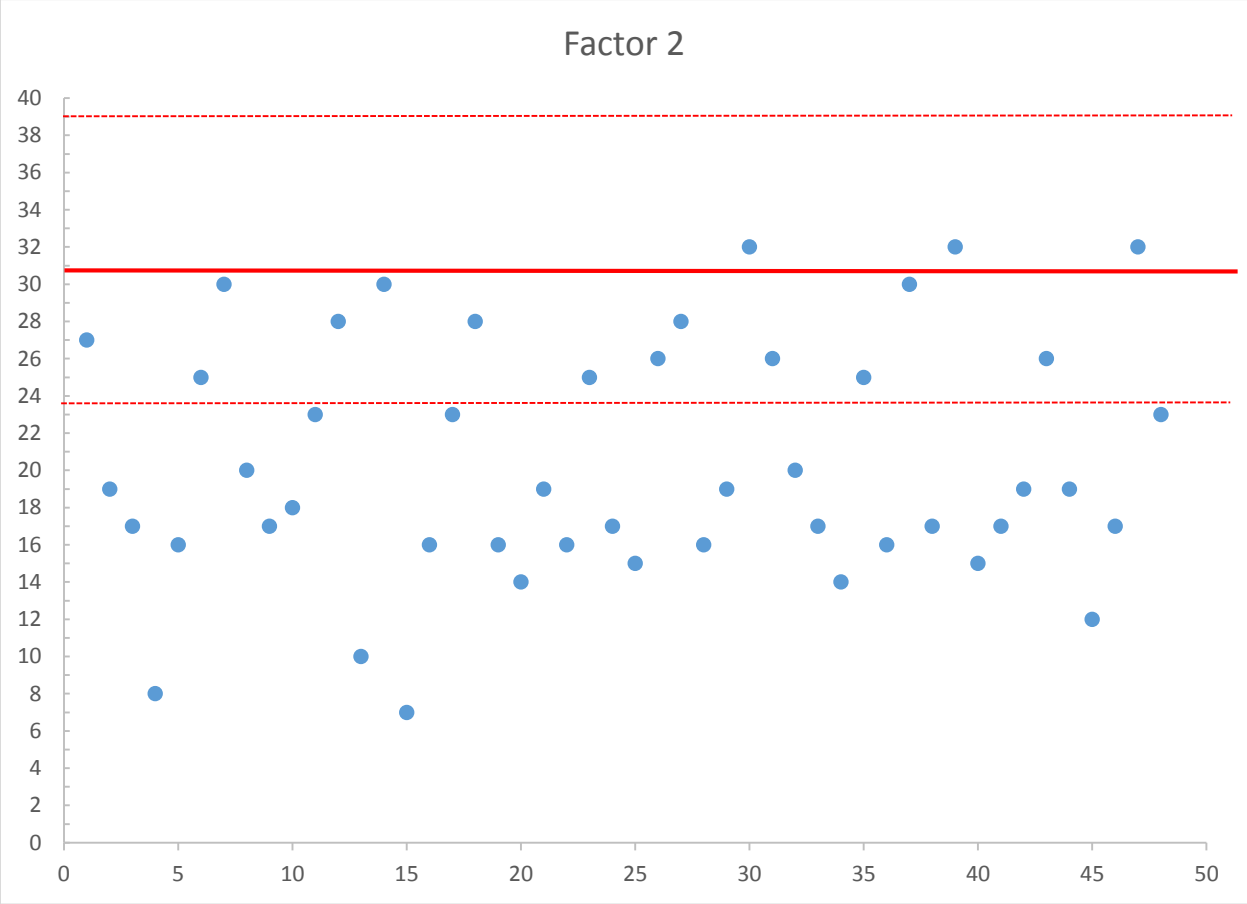

Figure 3 Personalized Instruction

In a learning environment that places a focus on personalized instruction the unique needs of the individual are considered, objectives are based on individual motives, instruction is self-paced, and a variety of methods, materials, and assignments are utilized. A teacher-focused environment is typified by lecturing and standardized testing. Figure three results indicate that in general, police training academies are quite teacher-focused. Forty-five of the forty-eight instructor scores are below the mean and thirty-two of the forty-eight are more than one standard deviation below.

Appendix J Figure Four: Factor Three

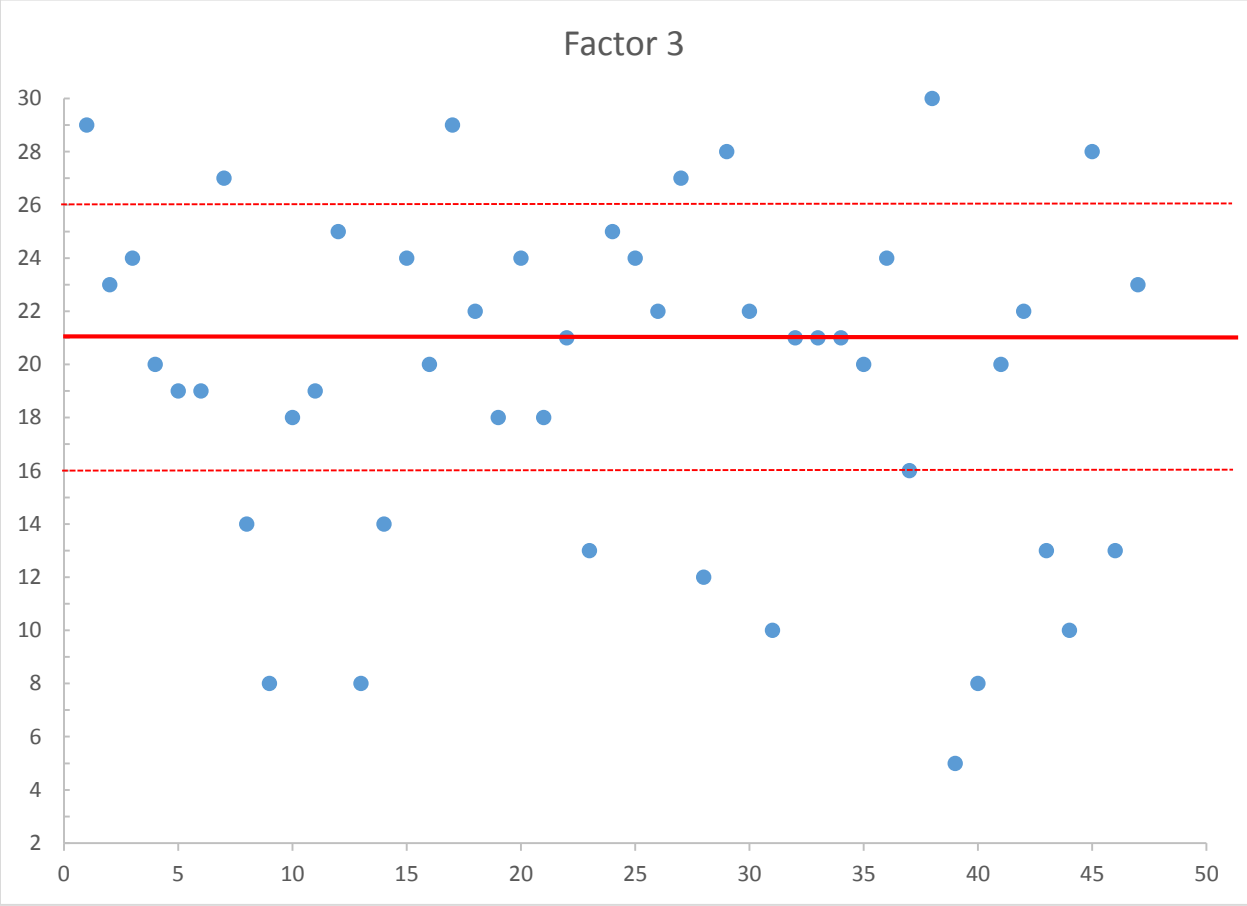

Figure 4 Relating to Experience

Overall there is instructor recognition of the past experiences that students bring with them into the police academy learning environment. Seventy-five percent of the instructors either support or strongly support the recognition of student past experience. There are however, 25 % of the instructor responses that indicate a very strong belief in not recognizing past experience.

Appendix K Figure Five: Factor Four

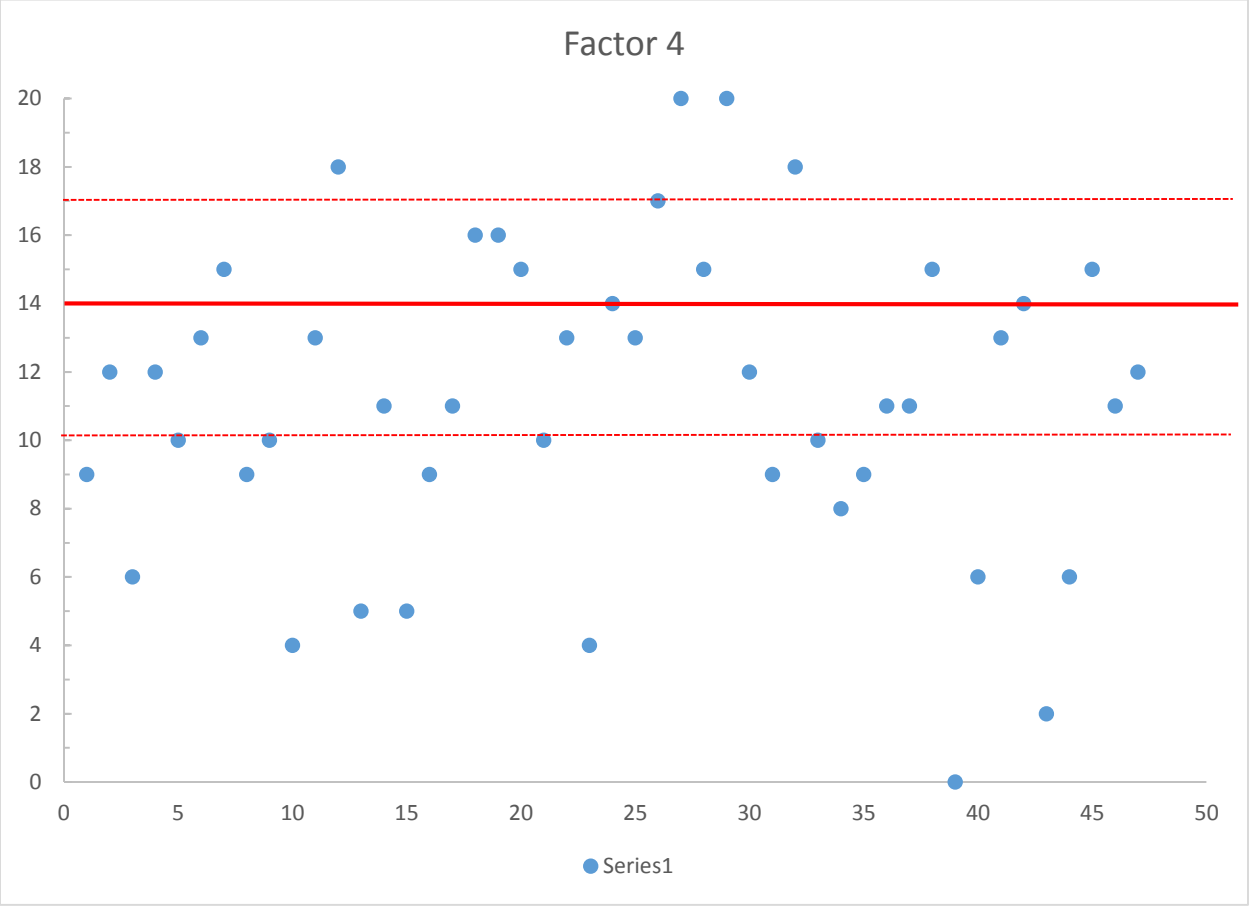

Figure 5 Assessing Student Needs

With reference to the factor regarding the assessment of student's needs, instructor survey results are quite mixed. The overall trend is towards a teacher-focused perspective (thirty-four out of the forty-eight are below the mean), however there are thirty-one that are within one standard deviation of the mean or more than one standard deviation above.

Appendix L Figure Six: Factor Five

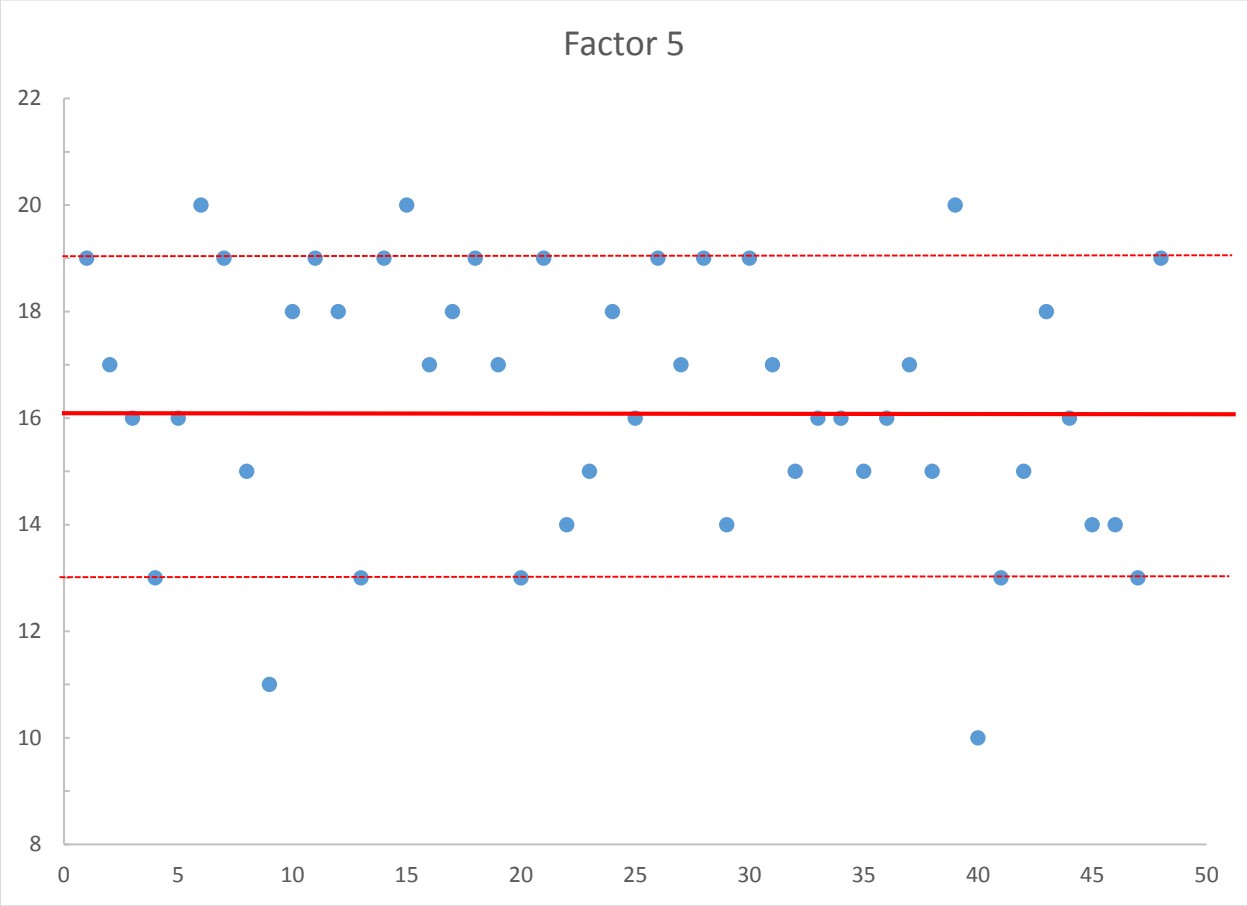

Figure 6 Climate Building

Overall instructor responses for the importance placed upon climate building clearly indicates that instructors have a strong believe in their responsibility to ensure that a positive learning environment exists within the classroom. Forty-six out of the forty-eight responses are within one standard deviation of the mean and thirty-one of the response are either at the mean or above.

Appendix M Figure Seven: Factor Six

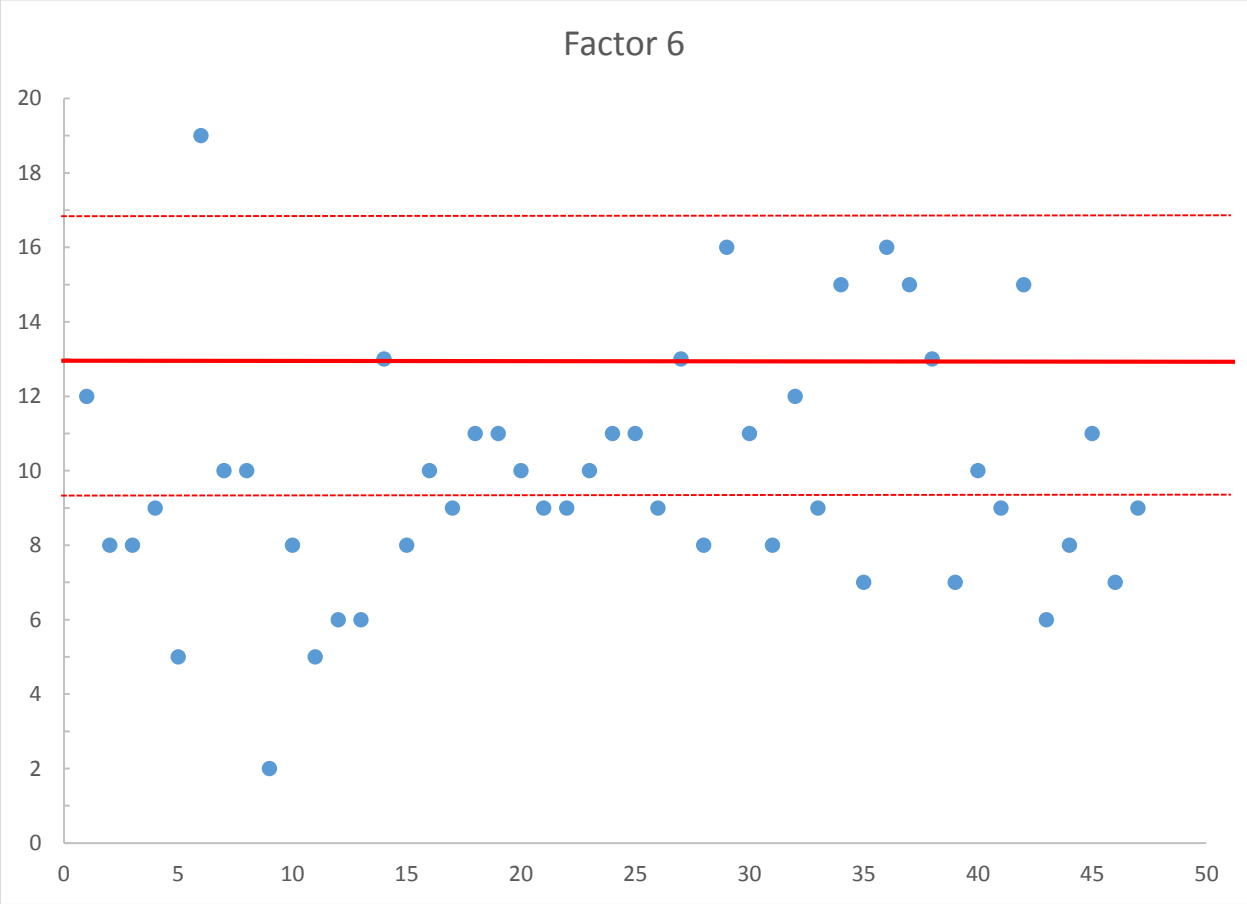

Figure 7 Participation in the learning process

The overall trend with respect to how instructors view the degree to which students should be involved in determining what topics and problems they should engage in, and how they will be evaluated, clearly supports a teacher-focused perspective. Thirty-eight out of the forty-eight responses are below the mean and twenty-four of those are more than one standard deviation below.

Appendix N Figure Eight: Factor Seven

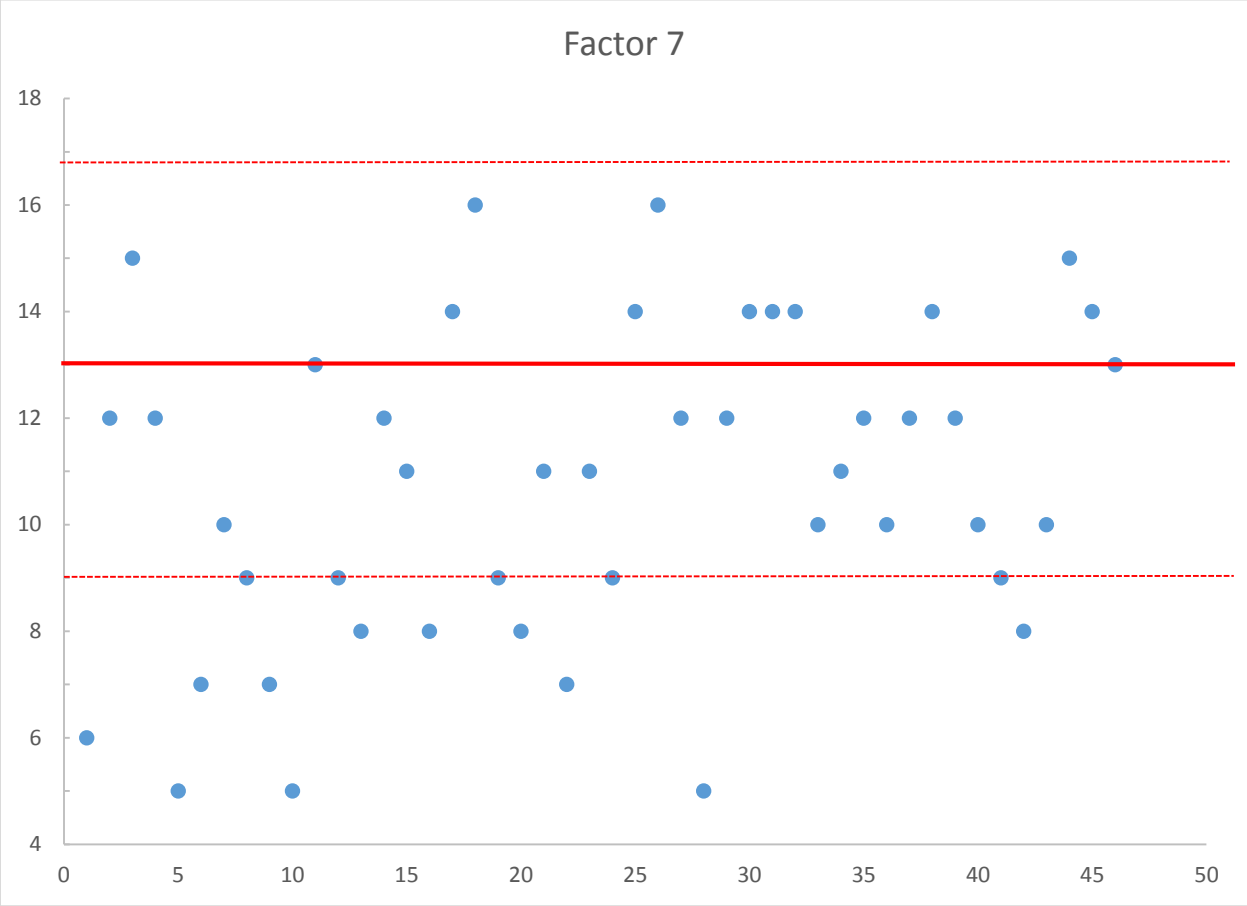

Figure 8 Flexibility for Personal Development

The survey results obtained from the 48 participating instructor's shows very mixed results. Thirty-six out of the forty-eight are within one standard deviation of the mean. Overall this would indicate support for this factor. Where the support for this factor becomes unclear is revealed in the number of responses that are below the mean (34) and the number of those that are more than one standard deviation below (12). This would tend to indicate that there is a significant belief that there is very little room to be flexible in their ability to facilitate individual personal development.